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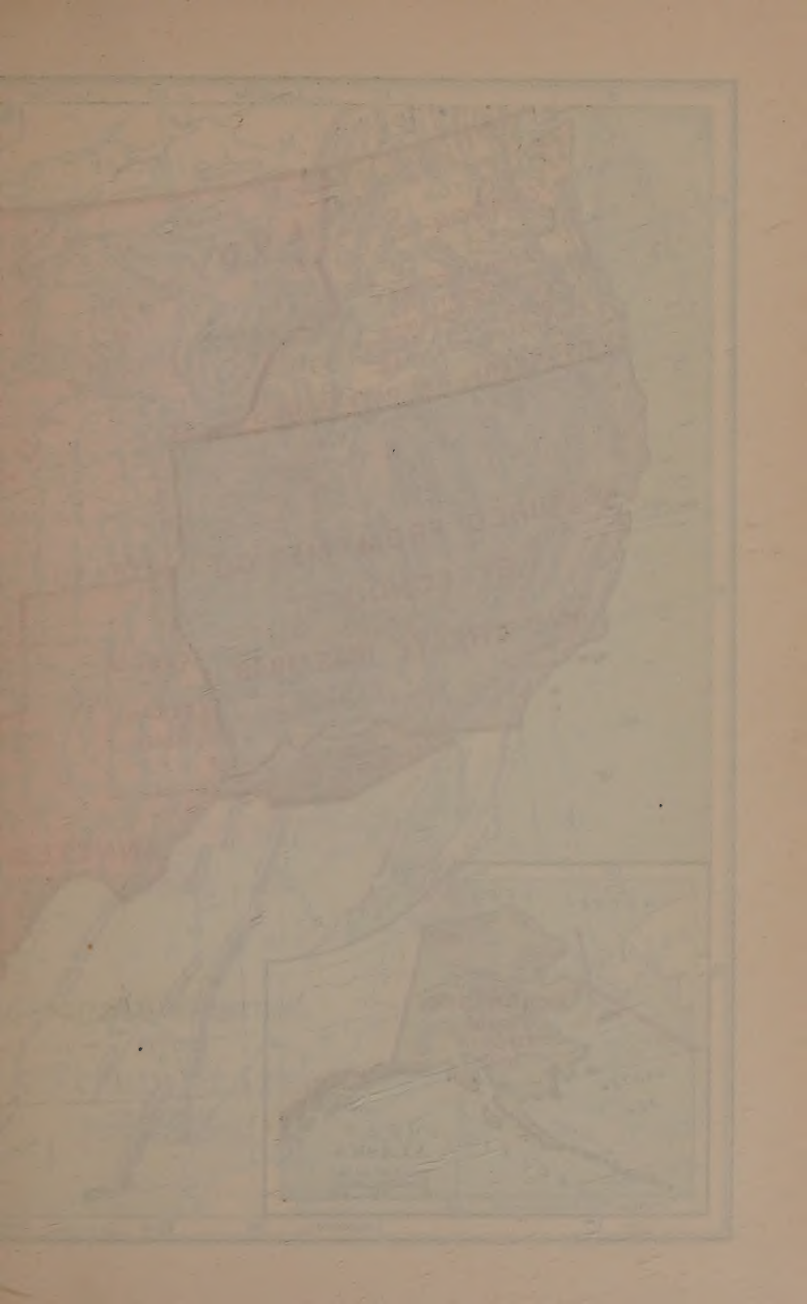

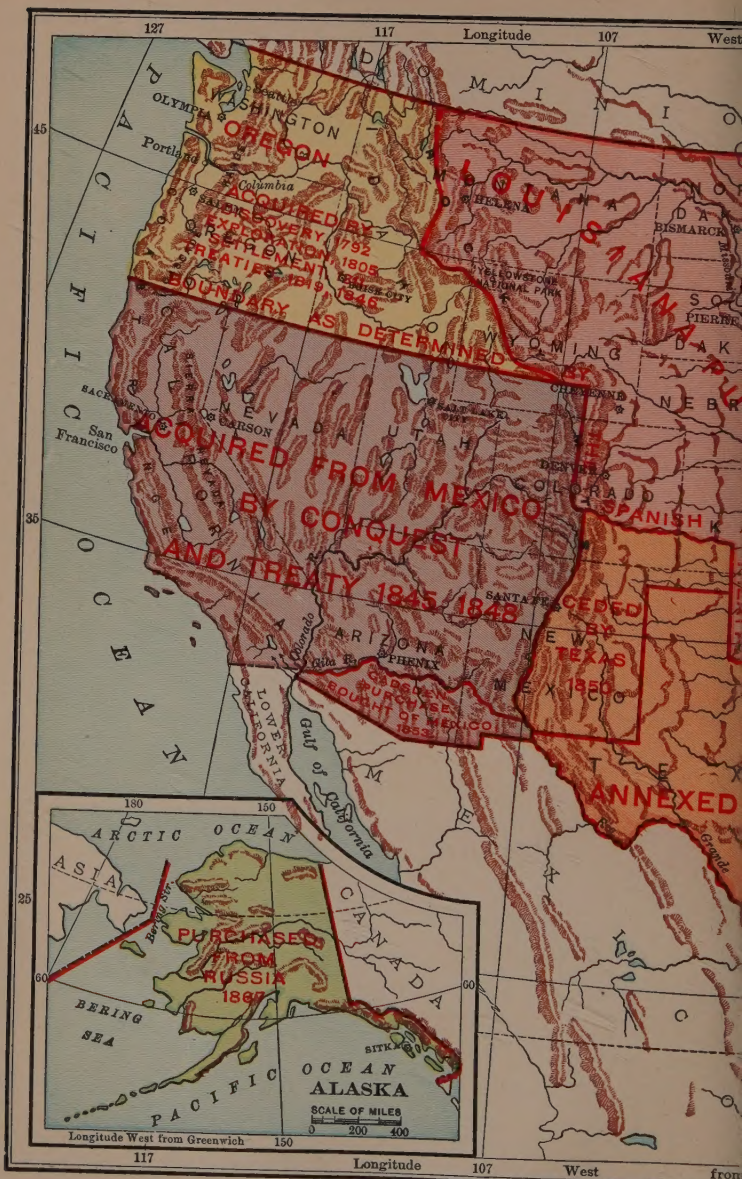

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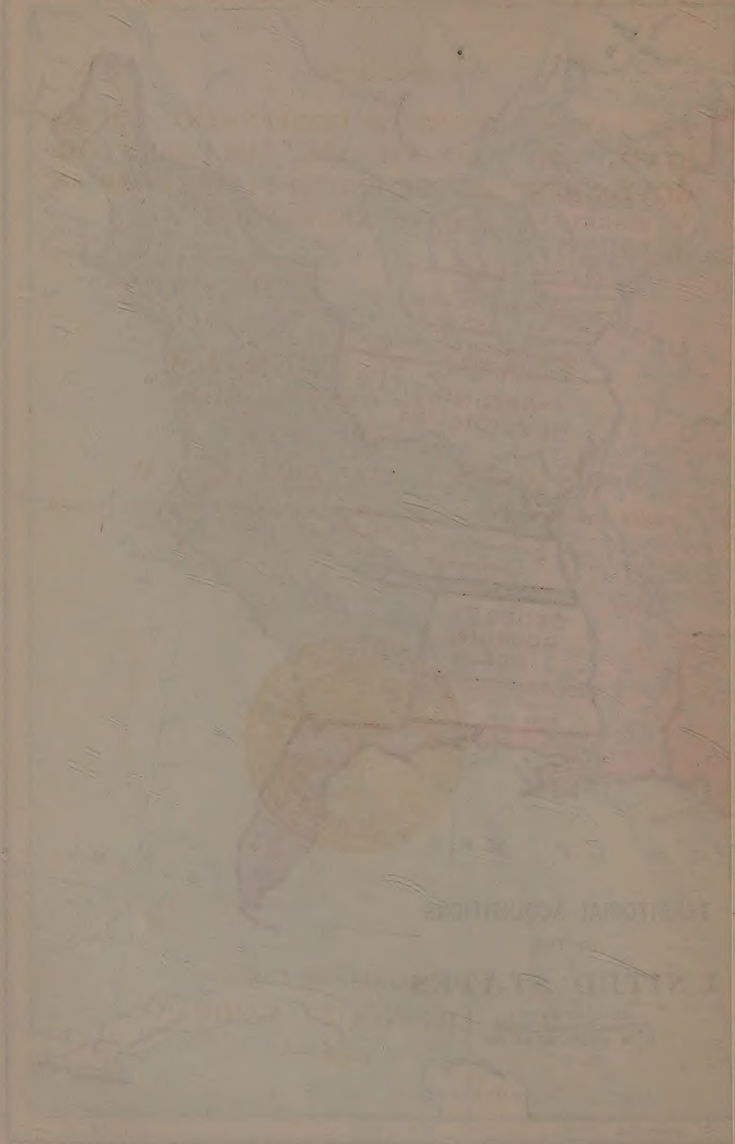

CIVIL GOVERNMENT

DESCRIBING

THE VARIOUS FORMS OF GOVERNMENT—LOCAL, STATE, AND NATIONAL—AND DISCUSSING THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FROM AN HISTORICAL STAND-POINT

BY

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PHILADELPHIA AND LONDON

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PREFACE.

MEN seek after liberty, and find it only in being well governed. The highest liberty, therefore, is in the best government: a government wisely planned and faithfully administered.

The people of the United States when ordaining and establishing the Constitution were actuated by a desire to secure to themselves and their posterity the blessings of liberty. We are now enjoying in a large measure the civil and religious freedom which our system of government is so happily adapted to secure. Whether these will be enjoyed by our posterity will depend largely upon what shall be done to qualify the rising generation of American youth for the duties and responsibilities of freemen.

In a system of government like ours, where the popular will is paramount and sovereign, and where by virtue of the system itself every male citizen enjoys the privilege of suffrage, each individual is confronted with grave responsibilities. Political privilege begets political responsibility, and a citizen who enjoys the one must assume the other, or, in his capacity as a citizen, be unpardonably delinquent.

In a very few years the destinies of the republic will be committed to those who are now receiving instruction in the schools. How important, then, that the course of instruction should embrace the study of Civil Government.

In theory ours is a government of the people; and that it may be such *in fact*, the people must know how to govern.

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The right of self-government can be valuable only as it is exercised intelligently. In order that the very object of free government may not be defeated and the people become their own oppressors, they must know how to exercise the rights of citizenship intelligently.

To the public schools and the many excellent private institutions of learning we must look for citizens qualified for the business of self-government. A knowledge of our political institutions is essential to the greatest good of all; and, therefore, the study of Civil Government should form a part of every well-ordered course of study.

A desire to furnish a text-book suitable for class use has been the leading aim of the authors, who, in sending forth this work, indulge the hope that it may prove a blessing to American youths, by preparing them for the efficient and honorable discharge of the responsible duties of citizenship.

THE AUTHORS.

PHILADELPHIA, February 27, 1901.

AUTHORS' NOTE.

The language of the explanations is well fitted for the minds of pupils from twelve to eighteen years of age. All words that might tend to cloud the thought have been omitted. Each clause of the Constitution and its explanation have been kept together, so that they may be compared. To have an explanation in one part of the book and the clause in another would cause confusion. It is better to have the necessary matter directly before the pupil than to compel him to refer to another page. Many repetitions therefore occur.

The Constitution is closely related to History. Many acts in the history of the country were owing to the application of the provisions of the Constitution. Wherever such connections have existed, mention thereof has been made. Under the power to declare war, the various wars of the United States have been placed. After the provision for the admission of new States, the names of States and the dates of their admission have been recorded.

Numerous outlines and tables have been inserted. Outlines are very valuable in study. They contain the gist of the subject, and enable the pupil to have before him its important parts, shorn of details. The making of outlines should be encouraged by the teacher.

Summaries and questions are placed at the end of each chapter. The questions may be used or omitted at the

discretion of the instructor. So many pointed questions can be asked in this study that it is better for the teacher to prepare entirely new ones.

The chapter on the Lives of Historical Characters should be an instructive one. The sacrifices that these men made and the struggles through which they went form a model to be followed. Their memories should endear them to those who share in the blessings of their efforts. A knowledge of their lives has, therefore, been made a part of the study of Civil Government.

A variety of historical and political articles has been inserted. It is not intended that they should be studied. As supplementary reading, it is thought that they will be interesting.

A Glossary of Terms forms part of the Appendix. The terms frequently mentioned in the text are here briefly explained. A dictionary in the book is much more convenient than a separate book.

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WHAT CONSTITUTES A STATE?

What constitutes a State?
Not high-raised battlements or labored mounds,
Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No! Men, high-minded *men*,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued,
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude;
Men who their *duties* know,
But know their *rights*, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain:
These constitute a State.

Sir William Jones.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

CHAPTER I.

NATURE AND NECESSITY OF GOVERNMENT.

Man a Social Being.—No person can live wholly separated from all other persons and fulfil the purpose of his creation. His comfort, happiness, and development require the assistance of others. Man is, therefore, naturally and necessarily, a social creature; and, the world over, we find mankind living more or less closely associated. Such association of mankind we call Society.

Duties and Rights.—Out of the association of mankind grow what are commonly called duties and rights. Every member of a society is entitled to certain rights and privileges, and he is also required to perform certain duties for the good of others. If any person entering a society claims the privileges of such society, he then assumes certain responsibilities. Every right claimed implies a duty assumed. In all societies duties and rights are mutual.

The Family and School.—The smallest natural group of persons is the family, which consists of father, mother, brothers, and sisters. In the family each member has certain duties to perform and is entitled to certain rights, and that family is the best and happiest in which parents and children alike respect one another's rights and are faithful in the performance of every duty.

In the school the teacher and the pupils have duties to perform, and upon the faithfulness of the performance of these duties depends the success of the school. Teacher and pupils have rights also. For instance, it is the right of the teacher to exact obedience from pupils, and it is the duty of pupils to obey; it is the right of the pupils to claim instruction at the hands of the teacher, and to instruct the pupils is the teacher's duty.

Necessity of Government.—If every individual in any community would be faithful in the performance of his duties, and would not interfere with the rights of others, the management of the affairs of society would be very simple indeed; but in every association of men we find those who are not willing to do this. Men are prone to selfishness, and this often leads them to do things that they should not do, and to neglect to do what is required of them. Moreover, men do not agree as to what are their rights and duties, and if left to themselves many disputes would arise and much trouble would result. It is necessary, therefore, that there be rules defining the rights and duties of members of society; and certain officers must be appointed or elected to see that these rules are observed.

Civil Society.—A civil society is one that is formed for the purpose of government. While there are no written laws for the government of a family or of a school, it is necessary to have such laws for the government of civil societies, and it is necessary also to have officers to enforce these laws.

Meaning of Government.—Civil government is the control, regulation, or management of the affairs of civil

society. It consists of laws which define the rights and duties of members of the society, and of a number of persons called officers, whose duty it is to see that the laws are obeyed, and, if disobeyed, to punish offenders. The primary purpose of government is to protect each individual in the enjoyment of his rights, and to do this it must require of each individual the performance of certain duties.

The Constitution.—When people unite for the purpose of government they elect delegates to meet in convention and make what is called a constitution. When this is prepared it is submitted to the people, and by majority vote is adopted. This constitution is the fundamental or basal law made by the people. It directs what the government shall be, what officers are to be elected, and what duties are to be performed. While the constitution firmly establishes the general principles of government, ample opportunity is left for the free growth of all necessary institutions. It also prescribes what laws may or may not be made. This is the foundation of the government, and no law shall in anywise conflict with it.

Laws.—After the constitution is adopted by the people, representatives are elected to a convention called the Legislature or Congress for the purpose of making laws. Laws are rules of action made by some proper authority, stating what is right and prohibiting that which is wrong. These laws are specific. They are intended to meet particular cases, and in almost all laws we find a fixed penalty for their violation. The purpose of all law is to restrain the evil and vicious and to promote that which is productive of the peace, comfort, and prosperity of the community.

In the United States constitutions are adopted by the

people, but the laws made after the adoption of the constitution are made by their representatives. Both law and constitution govern the people until new ones are adopted, or until the old ones are changed.

It is easily seen that the Constitution of the United States contains few rules in comparison with the number made by the government. The laws made since 1789 greatly exceed in number those contained in the Constitution. The Constitution is like the foundation of a building; it is that upon which succeeding specific laws are built.

A Statesman on Government.—Society can no more exist without government, in some form or other, than man without society. The political, then, is man's natural state. It is the one for which his Creator formed him, into which he is impelled irresistibly, and the only one in which his race can exist and all his faculties be fully developed.

It follows that even the worst form of government is better than anarchy, and that individual liberty or freedom must be subordinate to whatever power may be necessary to protect society against anarchy within or destruction without.

Just in proportion as a people are ignorant, stupid, debased, corrupt, exposed to violence within and dangers without, the power necessary for government to possess, in order to preserve society against anarchy and destruction, becomes greater and greater, and individual liberty less and less, until the lowest condition is reached, when absolute and despotic power becomes necessary on the part of the government, and individual liberty becomes extinct.

So, on the contrary, just as a people rise in the scale of intelligence, virtue, and patriotism, and the more perfectly they become acquainted with the nature of government, the

ends for which it was ordered, and how it ought to be administered, the power necessary for government becomes less and less, and individual liberty greater and greater.

JOHN C. CALHOUN.

SUMMARY.

1. Man is naturally and necessarily a social being. His highest good is dependent upon society.

2. In every society the members are entitled to certain rights and are under obligations to perform certain duties.

3. The smallest natural group of persons is the family.

4. Government is a necessity, because man's selfishness leads him to neglect his duties and to disregard the rights of others.

5. A civil society is one formed for purposes of government.

6. Civil government is the control, regulation, or management of the affairs of society.

7. The Constitution of the United States is the fundamental law. No law shall in anywise conflict with it.

8. Laws are specific rules for the government of society, and are intended to restrain all that is evil and vicious and promote that which is productive of the peace, comfort, and prosperity of the community.

QUESTIONS.

1. Why is it necessary for man to associate with man?

2. Do all classes of persons associate with others to the same extent? Illustrate your answer by taking two persons, one living in the country and the other living in the city.

3. What is a duty?

4. What is a right?

5. What is the smallest natural group of persons? Why is it true that the best results are obtained when the rights of each are respected and the duties of each are properly performed?

6. In what manner is a school a society? How may the best results be obtained in the school?

7. In what case would government be unnecessary?

8. What makes governments necessary, and what is their purpose?

9. A constitution marks the beginning of a government. Show in what manner this is true.

10. Laws are made after the constitution is adopted. Why are laws necessary when there is a constitution?

11. Constitutions and laws: (*a*) Define each; (*b*) Tell how each is made; (*c*) What is the difference between them?

CHAPTER II.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Introduction.—The United States is composed of a number of States and Territories. Each State is divided into counties, and each county is divided into townships. In some States the township is divided into school districts. The smallest civil unit that need be considered is the township. The purpose in making these divisions of States and counties is to bring the management of affairs closer to the people and thereby secure better government.

NOTE.—In Louisiana the divisions of the State are called Parishes. In the New England States the divisions of counties are called Towns, and in Delaware they are called Hundreds.

Citizenship.—A citizen of any one of the above-named divisions is a person who resides within the limits of such division. Since towns and townships are parts of counties, counties parts of States, and States parts of the United States, it follows that a person may at once be a citizen of a town, township, county, State, and nation. No State can adopt a constitution or make a law which in anywise conflicts with the Constitution of the United States, and as all towns, townships, and counties are subject to the laws of the State in which they are located, it is evident that the highest power lies in the general government. If, then, we are faithful in the performance of our duties as citizens of the United States, we will be true and loyal citizens of the State, county, and township in which we live.

TOWNSHIP GOVERNMENT.

Township Officers.—As previously stated, the township may be regarded as the smallest civil unit. The number of township officers is not great, there being in most cases only an Assessor, Tax Collector, Constable, Justice of the Peace, and a Board of School Directors. All these officers have important duties to perform, and upon the proper discharge of these duties depend the peace, happiness, and prosperity of the community.

Duties of Township Officers.—It is the duty of the Assessor to make a list of taxable property and to fix a value upon said property, and when the tax is levied the Tax Collector collects it. The Justice of the Peace hears complaints brought by one citizen against another, settles disputes, or, if unable to do so, returns them to the county court for trial. The Constable serves the Justice of the Peace, and in some cases does police duty. The Board of School Directors has charge of the schools.

NOTE.—All towns, townships, cities, counties, and States do not have the same officers. They vary in name, number, and duties; hence it is suggested that the teacher explain to pupils these matters as they pertain to the particular localities where this book is used. Pupils should be encouraged to gather information on local conditions from parents and others, and the teacher should take advantage of every local and general election to instruct pupils in such matters.

COUNTY GOVERNMENT.

County-Seat.—In every county there is a town called the county town, county-seat, or capital. Here the county officials have their offices, and the county courts are held here at stated intervals. The county prison is located at this place.

Officers of the County.—In counties, as in townships, the officers are not always the same in name or number, nor are their duties always the same. Generally the county officers are the Judge of the Courts, Sheriff, Treasurer, District or Prosecuting Attorney, Clerk of the Courts, Recorder, County Surveyor, Auditors, Coroner, Superintendent of Schools, and a Board of Commissioners.

Duties of County Officers.—It is the duty of the Judge of the Courts to preside over the county courts and to see that all business brought before him is transacted in accordance with the provisions of the law.

The Sheriff serves the court, keeps the county prison, and performs many other important duties.

The Treasurer is the custodian of the funds of the county, and as such receives and disburses all money belonging to the county.

The District Attorney conducts all prosecutions for public offences and defends the interests of the people in the courts.

The Clerk of the Courts keeps a record of all the business of the courts, especially of criminal cases. In some States an officer called the Prothonotary keeps the records of civil cases tried in the courts.

The Recorder, sometimes called Register and Recorder, makes and keeps for future reference copies of wills, deeds, and other important legal papers.

The County Surveyor is the officer who surveys land, surveys new roads, and traces the boundaries between tracts of land.

The Auditors examine and certify to the correctness of the accounts of officials who have anything to do with receiving and paying out public money.

The Coroner inquires into the cause of the death of persons who have met death by violence or from some unknown cause. The Coroner is assisted by a number of citizens who together are called a Coroner's jury. The purpose of the Coroner's inquest is to fix the responsibility for death from other than natural causes.

The Superintendent of Schools is charged with the duty of looking after the educational interests of the people of the county.

The County Commissioners have much to do in the management of the affairs of the county. They look after all property belonging to the county, build bridges, levy taxes for county purposes, equalize assessments, etc. This board generally consists of three members.

TOWN AND CITY GOVERNMENT.

Incorporated Towns.—When large numbers of people are crowded together, as in cities and towns, vice and crime increase, and it is then necessary to have a more rigid government than in rural districts where the people do not live so closely. For purposes of government, towns and cities are incorporated, that is to say, they are made separate civil units. They are given a charter which grants some special privileges.

Town Officers.—Incorporated towns have what is known as a Mayor or Burgess, who is the chief executive officer. Then there is a Council composed of citizens elected by the people. This Council makes laws for the government of the town. These laws are called ordinances, and relate chiefly to the management of the markets, improvement of streets, protection against fires, and all other matters pertaining to the general welfare of the town. There are also

Constables, Justices of the Peace, School Directors, and, in some cases, a police force. In small towns the constables do police duty. The duties of Constable, Justices of the Peace, and School Directors are the same as are performed by the same officers in the township.

Divisions of Cities and Towns.—Most towns and all cities are divided into wards, and wards are divided into precincts. The latter division is made chiefly for election purposes.

City Government.—The government of a large city is more difficult and consequently more complicated than the government of a small town. The duties of city government may be enumerated as follows: To repress crime and violence; to prevent epidemics; to clean and pave the streets; to protect property against fires; to construct sidewalks, sewers, and bridges; to maintain a suitable police force; to provide educational facilities; to regulate places of amusement; and to do everything to restrain the evil, vicious, and lawless, and to promote the peace, comfort, and prosperity of the community. The larger the city the greater is its peril and the greater the need of a strong government.

Cities act under a charter, which is a sort of fundamental law setting forth the manner in which the city is to be governed.

Usually city governments are divided into departments, such as the Police Department, Street Department, Fire Department, Law Department, Tax Department, etc. The Councils of large cities are divided into two branches,—Common Council and Select Council.

STATE GOVERNMENT.

State Constitution.—The government of each State is provided for in its constitution, which is formed by delegates chosen by the people. After the constitution is framed it is submitted to the people for their approval, and if a majority of the qualified voters favor the constitution it then becomes the fundamental law or basis of the State government. This constitution provides that when it no longer meets the needs of the people it may be altered or set aside and a new one made and adopted as at first.

Departments of State Government.—All State constitutions provide for three departments, the names and the functions of which are as follows:

1. The Legislative Department, in which is vested the power to make all laws for the government of the State.
2. The Executive Department, which is charged with the execution or enforcement of the laws.
3. The Judicial Department, which interprets and applies all laws and decides disputes between individuals.

Legislative Department.—The Legislative Department of the State government consists of a State Senate and a House of Representatives, or Assembly, which together constitute the State Legislature. Of the two branches the Senate is regarded as the higher, but the House has the greater number of members. In some States members of the House are elected for two years and Senators for four years. The meetings of the State Legislatures are held annually or biennially, but when public interests demand it the Governor may call a special session.

NOTE.—As the organization of the State Legislature, the manner of passing laws, etc., are similar to methods pursued in Congress, it is not necessary here to discuss these matters. The teacher can pursue the course deemed best for his class.

Executive Department.—The principal officers constituting what is commonly called the Executive Department of the State are the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Adjutant-General, Auditor-General, Insurance Commissioner, and Superintendent of Public Instruction. In some States all these officers are elected by the people; in other States some are elected and others are appointed by the Governor.

Duties of the Governor.—As the chief executive it is the Governor's duty to see that the laws are faithfully executed. He performs all the executive business that is to be transacted with officers of the government, both civil and military. He may call for information in writing respecting the conduct of their offices from the officers of the Executive Department. Upon the request of a Governor of another State he may issue an order for the return of any criminal who may have fled from justice. Such request from the Governor of another State is called a requisition, and the order for the return of the criminal is called an order of extradition.

The Governor is closely associated with the Legislature, as his assent is necessary to give legal force to an act of the Legislature, and his veto prevents an act from becoming a law unless, by a two-thirds vote, the Legislature overrides his veto. He can call the Legislature in special session.

He is commander-in-chief of the State militia, and as such he may act in cases of foreign invasion or of serious internal disorder.

The Governor issues commissions to certain officials. He has also power to appoint certain officers when a vacancy occurs and no other means of filling such vacancy has been provided. He nominates, subject to the approval of the State Senate, all officers not elected by the people.

He has power to grant pardons, reprieves, and commutation of sentence after conviction in all cases except treason and impeachment.

The Lieutenant-Governor.—The Lieutenant-Governor stands in the same relation to the Governor of a State as does the Vice-President to the President of the United States. His only duty is to preside over the State Senate, in which he has a vote only in case of tie. He succeeds to the governorship when there is a vacancy. All States do not have a Lieutenant-Governor.

Secretary of State.—The Secretary of State keeps a record of the official acts of the Legislature and the Executive Department of State government, affixes the great seal of the State to all commissions, pardons, and other public instruments to which the official signature of the Governor is required, records all conveyances to the State, all articles of incorporation filed in his office, and all official bonds, and he publishes the acts of the Legislature.

The State Treasurer.—The State Treasurer keeps all moneys belonging to the State, and pays out the same on warrants issued in accordance with the law. He must, when requested, give to the Legislature information as to the condition of the Treasury.

The Attorney-General.—It is the duty of the Attorney-General to prosecute or defend in the courts all cases in which the State or any officer thereof, in his official capacity, is a party. It is also his duty to give his opinion in writing upon any question of law relating to any of the offices of the Executive Department.

Superintendent of Public Instruction.—The Superintendent of Public Instruction has general supervision of the educational work of the State. By his department are collected valuable statistics relating to the public schools and other educational institutions supported wholly or in part by public money, and this information is given to the public in a report published annually or biennially.

Other State Officers.—The Adjutant-General, acting under the direction of the Governor, provides for and has general charge of the State militia.

The Auditor-General, sometimes called the State Auditor, or Comptroller, is the financial agent of the State. He examines and adjusts all claims and accounts against the State, and orders the payment of such as he approves.

The Insurance Commissioner protects the interests of the people by keeping general oversight of the insurance companies doing business in the State.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

The Different Courts.—The judicial power of the State is vested in certain courts, variously named. The lowest court is that presided over by the Justice of the Peace. Then there are County Courts, a Superior Court, and a Supreme Court. All of the courts are established by the

constitution and by laws enacted by the State Legislature. When sitting as a court of impeachment, the Senate has judicial power.

Progress of Suits at Law.—A citizen having cause for complaint against another, makes information before a Justice of the Peace, who, if unable to settle the dispute, returns it to the county court for trial. Here the case is first reviewed by what is called a grand jury; and, if in the judgment of this jury the case is worthy of further consideration, it reports to the court that in such case they find a "true bill." Then the case is called in court and tried by twelve men, who constitute what is known as the petit jury. If either plaintiff or defendant to the suit be dissatisfied with the verdict of the county court, he can appeal to one of the higher courts. The Supreme Court is the highest State court to which a citizen may appeal.

Board of Pardons.—It is not the desire of the government unjustly to deprive any person of life or liberty, and, therefore, there has been provided an additional safeguard in the Board of Pardons. If, after a case has been carried through all the courts and the convicted person has been sentenced, it should appear from after-discovered evidence, or from any cause, that injustice has been done the person under sentence, he may ask the Board of Pardons to review his case. This Board is usually made up of certain State officers. If the Board of Pardons should reach the conclusion that the convicted person has been unjustly condemned or has been too severely punished, they recommend him to executive clemency. The Governor has the power to pardon the person or commute his sentence.

SUMMARY.

1. To bring the management of public affairs closer to the people and thereby secure better government, States are divided into counties and counties into townships.

2. The township is the smallest civil unit.

3. The principal township officers are Assessor, Tax Collector, Justice of the Peace, and a Board of School Directors.

4. The county town is the place where the officers of a county have their offices, where the county courts are held, and where the county prison is located.

5. The principal officers in a county are Judge of the Courts, Sheriff, Treasurer, District Attorney, Clerk of the Courts, Recorder, Surveyor, Auditors, Coroner, Superintendent of Schools, and a Board of Commissioners.

6. Towns and cities require a more rigid government than rural districts because of the increase of vice and crime when large numbers of persons are brought together.

7. To incorporate a town is to make it a separate civil unit.

8. Aside from the Burgess and town Council, the officers of a town are generally the same as those of a township.

9. Towns and cities are divided into wards, and in cities wards are divided into precincts.

10. However varied the duties of the city government, the purpose is to restrain the evil, vicious, and lawless, and to promote the peace, comfort, happiness, and prosperity of the people.

11. Special laws passed by town or city Councils are called ordinances. Such ordinances must not in anywise conflict with State or national laws.

12. City governments are divided into departments, such as Police Department, Street Department, Fire Department, Tax Department, and Law Department.

13. The Councils of large cities are divided into two branches,—Common Council and Select Council.

14. The State government is provided for in a State constitution adopted by the people.

15. The State government consists of three departments,—Legislative, Executive, and Judicial.

16. The Legislative Department consists of a State Legislature composed of two branches,—viz., Assembly and Senate.

17. The principal officers of the Executive Department are Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Adjutant-General, Auditor-General, Insurance Commissioner, and Superintendent of Public Instruction. Some of these officers are elected by the people, others are appointed by the Governor with the consent of the State Senate.

18. The Judicial Department consists of various courts established by the State constitution and by laws made by the Legislature.

19. Suits at law are begun in a court of a Justice of the Peace and are then tried in the county court. Appeals are sometimes taken to the higher courts. The Supreme Court is the highest State court to which any citizen can appeal.

QUESTIONS.

1. Of what is the United States composed?
2. How are States, counties, towns, and cities divided?
3. What is the smallest civil unit considered in this book?
4. What is the object in dividing States and counties?
5. What are the divisions of the State of Louisiana called?
6. What names are given to townships in New England and Delaware?
7. Of what are you a citizen?
8. Name the township, town, or city, and the county and State of which you are a citizen.
9. Name the principal officers of a township.
10. What are the duties of each township officer?
11. Why do towns and cities require a more rigid government?
12. Name the principal officers of a town.
13. What are the duties of each town officer?
14. What is the title of the executive officer of a town?
15. What is said of the departments of city government?
16. What are the duties of each department?
17. What body makes the special laws for the government of a town or city? Of what is it composed?
18. What is a town or city law called?
19. In what county do you live?

20. Name the county-seat.
21. Name the principal officers in your county.
22. Name the persons now filling those offices.
23. What are the duties of each officer?
24. How many counties are in your State?
25. What is the fundamental law of a State?
26. How is a State constitution made?
27. How many departments in State government?
28. State briefly the function of each department.
29. Of what is the State Legislature composed?
30. How are the members of State Legislatures elected? What is the term of an Assemblyman? What is the term of a State Senator?
31. When does your State Legislature meet?
32. Name the principal officers in the Executive Department.
33. Name the persons now filling these offices.
34. Tell briefly what are the duties of each State officer.
35. Name the different courts constituting the Judicial Department of the State.
36. Tell of the progress of a suit at law.
37. Which is the court of last resort in a State?
38. Tell all you know of the Board of Pardons.

CHAPTER III.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF GOVERNMENT.

Different Countries and Peoples.—From your study of geography you have learned that the surface of the earth is divided into many countries, and that these countries are inhabited by peoples differing in manners, customs, language, education, and in their advancement in the arts and sciences. In view of these varied conditions, it is not surprising that there should be different forms of government.

Forms of Government.—Although there are many countries, the forms of government may be arranged in four classes, as shown in the following table:

Forms of Government . . . .
- 1. Monarchy.
  - 1. Absolute.
  - 2. Limited.
- 2. Aristocracy.
- 3. Democracy.
- 4. Republic.

Monarchy.—In a monarchy the power is vested in one person, who generally inherits the office, and who holds the place at his pleasure or for life, and at death the place is given to some member of his family. Various titles are applied to monarchs, such as King, Queen, Emperor, Empress, Czar, Mikado, Shah, Khedive.

Different Kinds of Monarchies.—Monarchies are of two classes, divided according to the power of the chief person in each. Those monarchies in which the rulers have absolute power over their subjects are called Absolute Mon-

archies. In an absolute monarchy the sovereign may make the laws, see that they are executed, and punish offenders.

	Country.	Ruler.	Social Condition.
Absolute Monarchies	Russia.	Czar.	Civilized.
	Turkey.	Sultan.	Civilized.
	China.	Emperor.	Civilized.
	Persia.	Shah.	Semi-Civilized.
	Egypt.	Khedive.	Semi-Civilized.
	Morocco.	Sultan.	Semi-Civilized.

Limited Monarchy.—A Limited Monarchy is that form of government in which the sovereign's power over his subjects is limited by a set of laws called a constitution. This form is also called a Constitutional Monarchy.

	Country.	Ruler.	Social Condition.
Limited Monarchies	Great Britain and Ireland.	King or Queen.	Enlightened.
	Sweden and Norway.	King or Queen.	Enlightened.
	Germany.	Emperor or Empress.	Enlightened.
	Austria-Hungary.	Emperor or Empress.	Civilized.
	Netherlands.	King or Queen.	Enlightened.
	Belgium.	King or Queen.	Enlightened.
	Greece.	King or Queen.	Civilized.
	Japan.	Mikado.	Enlightened.
	Italy.	King or Queen.	Enlightened.

Difference between Absolute and Limited Monarchies.

1. All limited monarchies have constitutions, thereby giving the people more power.

2. In limited monarchies the people are generally enlightened, while in absolute monarchies they are but civilized.

3. In an absolute monarchy the ruler exercises all the powers of government, while in a limited monarchy the people as well as the ruler take part in the government.

Aristocracy.—An aristocracy is a government controlled by a few men. These men are well known to the people by their wisdom or wealth, or by having performed some great service for the country. This form of government never existed to a great extent in any part of the world. Venice at one time was under such a form. A few of the Swiss Cantons were formerly aristocracies.

Democracy.—A democracy is that form of government in which the people decide for themselves what shall be done on all occasions. In this form the people are their own sovereigns. This system existed in the early history of Rhode Island and in the "Town System of New England." Some of the Swiss Cantons are good examples of this form. It is the best system of government that can be devised for a community having a small population, but in any country where the population is large, it would be almost impossible to assemble all of the people in a certain place at a specified time. In such an assemblage it would also take a long time to obtain the opinions of the people on any question, and the work of the people would have to be neglected in order that they might attend such meeting.

Republic.—A republic is that form of government in which the voice of the people is shown through their representatives. Instead of all men giving their opinions a certain few are elected from the entire number to act for them. These men are called representatives. In a democracy the

people act for themselves, while in a republic the representatives act for them.

	Country.	Ruler.	Social Condition.
Republics	United States.	President.	Enlightened.
	Mexico.	President.	Civilized.
	Brazil.	President.	Civilized.
	France.	President.	Enlightened.
	Switzerland.	President.	Enlightened.
	Liberia.	President.	Civilized.

Combination of Different Forms.—In some countries, at the present time, distinct forms of government are combined,—*e.g.*, although Great Britain is a limited monarchy it has some of the characteristics of a republic. The House of Commons is composed of members chosen by the people. The rest of the government is hereditary; therefore, like a monarchy.

The United States.—A Democratic Republic.—The people of the United States elect persons to represent them in the making of laws and in the management of the government. Thus far it is democratic. But when the people act through representatives, and not directly, they introduce the republican feature. In other words, as soon as the people transfer their power to their representatives the form of government ceases to be democratic and becomes republican. Therefore, the government of the United States is a democratic republic.

All the States of the United States follow the government of the United States, each in itself being a democratic republic.

SUMMARY.

1. Different natural and social conditions tend to make a variety of forms of government.

2. Some forms of government are,—monarchy, aristocracy, democracy, and republic.

3. A monarchy is one in which the power is vested in one person. In an absolute monarchy all power is exercised by this person, while in a limited monarchy his power is restricted.

4. The aristocratic form is controlled by a small body of men instead of one man.

5. In a democratic form of government the people are their own rulers.

6. The republican form provides for representatives, who are chosen by the people and who act for them.

7. The United States government is a combination of the democratic and republican forms. The work is done by representatives, but these are chosen by the people.

QUESTIONS.

1. Enumerate the principal features of these governments: (*a*) Limited monarchy; (*b*) Absolute monarchy; (*c*) Aristocracy; (*d*) Democracy; (*e*) Republic.

2. Mention three forms of government which exist to-day, and name three nations governed by each form.

3. Name several things which would tend to influence the form of government of a nation.

4. Think of the various kinds of governments; think of their advantages and disadvantages. Select the one under which you would prefer to live, and give your reasons therefor.

5. What are the differences between an absolute and a limited monarchy?

6. The United States is a democratic republic. Explain how this is possible.

7. Make an outline. Call it Forms of Government. Place in it: (*a*) The names of the different forms; (*b*) Three countries under each form; (*c*) The title of the ruler in each; (*d*) The name of the present ruler; (*e*) The social condition of the people.

CHAPTER IV.

COLONIAL GOVERNMENT OF AMERICA.

Rise of Colonies in America.—The explorers who were sent out by the countries of Europe in the fifteenth century were given power to take or claim, in the names of their sovereigns, the land discovered by them. This land then became a part of the old country. The reports of the wealth of the newly discovered country were such as to cause an immense emigration from the old world. Another reason which served to increase the population of the new country was the religious persecution of the Puritans and Quakers in England and of the Huguenots in France. As you know, these people came to America to enjoy religious freedom. The people who came from Europe settled in groups and established colonies. A settlement of people living away from the home or mother country, but subject to its laws and authority, is called a Colony.

Different Colonies in America.—The people in the colonies lived under government, but the governments of all the colonies were not alike. When the Revolutionary War broke out there were three distinct forms of colonial government,—namely, Royal or Provincial, Proprietary, and Charter.

Royal or Provincial Form.—This form consisted of a governor appointed by the king, and a colonial legislature consisting of two houses ; the upper house being composed of members selected by the king, and the lower, of mem-

bers elected by the people. The governor had the power to veto any bill passed by the legislature. He could convene or adjourn the legislature at pleasure. With the consent of the legislature he could appoint judges and establish courts. It will thus be seen that under this form the king had absolute power over the colonies.

Colony.	By Whom Settled.	Legislature.	Governor.
Massachusetts .	English.	Upper house appointed by the king.	Appointed by the king.
New Hampshire	English.		He could sign or veto bills.
New York . .	Dutch.		
New Jersey . .	English.	Lower house elected by the people.	He had the power to convene or adjourn the legislature.
Virginia . . .	English.		
North Carolina	English and French.	It made the laws and could establish courts and appoint judges with the consent of the governor.	He could appoint judges and establish courts when the consent of the legislature was given.
South Carolina	English and French.		
Georgia	English.		

Massachusetts for some years after its settlement had a Charter form of government. In 1629 King Charles I. granted a charter to a company of Englishmen who were to have charge of the Massachusetts Colony. During the reign of Charles II. the colony was deprived of its charter, but in 1692 a new charter was granted. This was not so liberal as the first charter, and practically changed Massachusetts to a Royal Province.

Proprietary form of Government.—Under the Proprietary form of government the control was exercised by pro-

prietors, who, for some consideration, received their authority from the king. For instance, the English king owed William Penn a sum of money. This sum was not paid, but instead land in the New World was granted. Under this form of government the proprietor had the right to select the governor and the members of the upper house of the colonial legislature; the members of the lower house were elected by the people.

The proprietary colonies were generally well governed, because each proprietor wished to have his colony in good condition. To attain this end he would naturally appoint a competent person as governor and proper persons for members of the upper house of the colonial legislature. The only difference between the Royal and the Proprietary forms was in the person who appointed the governor and the members of the upper house.

Colony.	Settled by.	Legislature.	Governor.
Maryland . . .	English.	Upper house appointed by the proprietor.	Appointed by the proprietor.
Pennsylvania .	English and Swedes.		
Delaware . . .	English and Swedes.	Lower house elected by the people.	

Charter Form.—The remaining colonies had more liberties than the others. All their rights were mentioned in a paper called a "Charter," which was given to them by a king. The people had the following rights:

1. To choose their own governor.
2. To elect the members of both houses.
3. To establish courts of justice.

The only restriction placed upon the people living under this form was that no law should be passed by the colonial legislature which was contrary to the laws of England. We can very readily see that the people living under the Charter form of government had the most political rights.

Colony.	Settled by.	Legislature.	Governor.
Rhode Island	English.	Both houses elected by the people.	Chosen by the people.
Connecticut	English.		

The people in these two colonies continued under their original charter long after the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. Connecticut did not supplant its charter by a State constitution until 1818, while Rhode Island waited until 1842 before adopting one.

Colonial Governments compared.—Of the three forms of colonial government, the king had the most power under the Royal form and least under the Charter. The people under all these forms enjoyed some political rights. In the Charter form the people were by far the happiest; under the Royal form continual disputes arose between the colonies and the king. The three forms were alike in so far as the composition of the lower house was concerned, it being made up of members chosen by the people.

Town System of New England.—The Charter form of government gave the people all political rights. There being very few inhabitants at first, the people themselves decided all questions of interest to the colony, thus forming a purely democratic form of government. After the population in-

creased and the area of the colony became more extensive, it was found necessary to divide the colony into districts, from six to ten miles square, called towns or townships, in order to preserve the democratic form of government. Each town or township elected its own officers, thereby forming the township government.

Once a year the voters of a township met to transact business as follows:

1. To enact laws.
2. To make appropriations for various purposes.
3. To choose the following officers for the ensuing year:
   (*a*) A town clerk.
   (*b*) A town treasurer.
   (*c*) Selectmen.

The town clerk had charge of all public papers. The treasurer received and paid out money. The selectmen saw that the laws enacted by the town-meeting were executed when this body was not in session.

SUMMARY.

1. After the discovery of the New World its settlement began. Settlements were caused by the reports of the wealth of the country and by religious persecution in England and France.

2. Forms of colonial government,—Royal, Proprietary, and Charter.

3. These three forms were alike in that each had two houses in its legislative assembly. In all cases the members of the lower house were chosen by the people. Under the Royal form the people had the least power. Under the Charter form the people had the most power.

4. The town system which prevailed in the New England colonies was purely democratic in character. Once a year all voters met to decide the business of the township.

QUESTIONS.

1. Explain fully the rise of the colonies in America.

2. Define colony. Classify the colonies according to their form of government.

3. About colonies, mention the principal features of: (*a*) The Royal; (*b*) The Charter; (*c*) The Proprietary.

4. Compare the governments in the colonies, showing: (*a*) How they were alike; (*b*) How they were different.

5. Suppose you lived in London in 1760, and were thinking of coming to the colonies, to which colony would you have emigrated? Why?

6. What is meant by the "Town System of New England"?

7. Make an outline. Call it Colonial Governments. Place in it: (*a*) The names of three forms of government; (*b*) The colonies under each; (*c*) The name of the nation settling each; (*d*) The appointment of the legislature; (*e*) The appointment of the governor.

CHAPTER V.

ATTEMPTS OF THE COLONIES AT UNION.

Isolation of the Colonies.—The colonies in America were so widely separated from each other, and the means of communication were so difficult, that for many years each colony acted independently. In those days a journey from New York to Boston could only be made on horseback, by stage, or by boat. Such a journey was considered so dangerous that few persons undertook to make it. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the colonies gradually saw the necessity of uniting against the Indians, who were becoming very hostile, and who threatened them on all sides.

New England Confederation.—The New England colonies were greatly troubled by the French settlers on the north, and by the Dutch, who claimed the territory between the Connecticut and the Hudson Rivers. An outbreak of the Indians was looked for at any time. The people living in these colonies became convinced that it was absolutely necessary to unite in order to resist the encroachments of these hostile neighbors.

In 1643 the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven formed a union called "The United Colonies of New England." The principal object of this Union was for mutual protection against their enemies. Maine and Rhode Island were anxious to join the Union, but were refused because of their difference in religion from the other colonies which were members of the Union.

This Union lasted forty years. It did not accomplish everything that it set out to do; however, its great value was that it taught the colonies that in times of need they must stand and act together. It also prepared the way for stronger unions in the future.

Albany Convention.—The French and Indian War broke out in the colonies about 1754. The French and Indians were allies. At this time it looked as though the colonies would be destroyed if they did not unite for protection. The colonies, at the suggestion of England, were advised to appoint delegates to meet in convention at Albany, 1754. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland were the only colonies that sent delegates.

Benjamin Franklin, a delegate from Pennsylvania, was a leading member of this Convention. He did much towards promoting the idea of the importance of having the colonies united. In a newspaper which he owned he printed a picture of a snake cut into thirteen parts and beneath it this motto, "Unite or Die." *

The Convention made a treaty with the Indians and adopted the following plan of union, proposed by Franklin:

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* Franklin took advantage of an old superstition to impress upon the colonies the importance of uniting. At one time it was believed that if a snake were cut into pieces and the pieces were allowed to touch it would not die, but would live by becoming whole again. The picture of the snake, used by Franklin, was cut into thirteen parts and each part represented a colony. Franklin's idea was that if these thirteen parts (colonies) did not unite for common defence they would surely die,—*i.e.*, they all would be conquered.

1. It provided for a governor-general to be appointed by the king.
2. A grand council was to consist of representatives chosen by the colonial assemblies.

This plan was rejected by the colonies because they thought it gave too much power to the king, and by the king because he thought it gave too much power to the colonies.

Parliament taxes the Colonies.—The French and Indian War proved to be very expensive to England. The colonies, during the war, willingly assisted the mother country by furnishing not only men but also money. When the war ended, England found herself heavily in debt. She was pleased to think that her territory in America had been extended, but grumbled about paying the debt incurred by the war which had secured it for her. The colonies had reaped no benefit by the war except that of being brought into closer relation with each other. The King of England seemed to think that since the war had been fought on American soil it was right that the colonies should pay the expense. Accordingly, taxes were placed on various articles of use and also a stamp tax on all newspapers and legal documents that were used in America by the colonists. The levying of some of these taxes was in accordance with a law, known as the "Stamp Act," passed by the English Parliament in 1765. No transaction in which paper was used was considered legal unless a stamp furnished by the British government was affixed.

Opposition of the Colonies to Taxation.—The tax was small, but the right to impose such a tax was disputed by the colonists. They claimed that they were English subjects and as such could not be taxed unless they gave

their consent. They also contended that it was unjust to tax them when they were not represented in Parliament. When the stamps came to America the colonists refused to pay for them.

The Stamp Act Congress.—The people were so indignant that a Congress was suggested. This Congress met in 1765 at New York. Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina were represented, and several other colonies, although they sent no delegates, agreed to abide by the decision of this Congress.

The Congress adopted three papers:

1. A Declaration of Rights, in which the colonies insisted that no tax could be laid upon them without their consent.
2. A memorial to Parliament.
3. A petition to the king.

The results accomplished by this Congress were:

1. The repeal of the Stamp Act.
2. A closer union of the colonies was effected, this meeting being the first general meeting—the colonies of the North and South alike being represented.

Further Efforts to tax the Colonies.—The action of the Stamp Act Congress and the great indignation of the people led to the repeal of the Stamp Act in 1766. This, however, did not seem to impress the king or Parliament with the determined opposition of the colonists to taxation, for immediately renewed cause for complaint was furnished by:

1. Laying new taxes.
2. Closing the port of Boston.
3. Passing the Quartering Act.

First Continental Congress.—These new acts of the king and Parliament were so obnoxious to the colonists that they became convinced that the only way out of this constant disputing was open resistance. So, in 1774, the First Continental Congress met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, to consider what course they should pursue. All of the colonies were represented with the exception of Georgia. Among the members were John Adams, Samuel Adams, John Jay, Roger Sherman, George Washington, Richard Henry Lee, and Patrick Henry. Peyton Randolph was chosen president. The members of this Congress agreed that in voting upon any question each colony was to have but one vote. This method of conferring equal suffrage upon each colony was adhered to until the Federal Constitution was adopted in 1789.

The following was the work of this Congress:

1. A Declaration of Rights was drawn up and addressed to the people of Great Britain. In it the grievances of the colonies were stated.
2. They agreed to hold no intercourse or trade with the mother country until their rights were acknowledged.
3. They agreed to uphold Massachusetts in her resistance.
4. They decided to meet in Philadelphia the following year.

The Second Continental Congress met as agreed upon in Independence Hall, in 1775. It lasted, with short intermissions, until the Constitution of the United States went into force. John Hancock was chosen president. This Congress was considered as the lawful authority of the colonies and was recognized as such by Massachusetts and New York. Both of these colonies applied to it for advice. Congress transacted the following business:

1. It organized all the soldiers as the Continental army. It assumed control of the military affairs and appointed George Washington commander-in-chief.

2. Passed measures to defray the expenses of the war.

3. Established a system of Continental currency.

4. Organized a general post-office with Benjamin Franklin as postmaster-general.

5. Determined upon separation by passing the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.

6. Passed the Articles of Confederation, 1777.

The Declaration of Independence.—In June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, in accordance with instructions given him by the Virginia Convention, offered a resolution in Congress which said, "These United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States."

This was considered a very bold step, as the persons having anything to do with its adoption were liable to be hanged for treason by England. A committee, however, consisting of Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, John Adams of Massachusetts, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, Roger Sherman of Connecticut, and Robert Livingstone of New York, was appointed on June 11 to write a declaration containing the thought of Lee's resolution.

Jefferson wrote the Declaration, and Adams and Franklin made some alterations. Lee's resolution and the Declaration were submitted to Congress on the same day, July 1. On July 2 the resolution was adopted by a large majority, and the Declaration of Independence was finally adopted July 4. In it the name "United States" is first used. It was signed by fifty-six men. This precious document is still preserved at Washington. The following are the features of the Declaration:

1. It declared that all men were created free and equal.

2. It gave the reasons for the severing of the political ties which bound the colonies to Great Britain.

3. It gave all the rights to which the colonists thought they were entitled.

4. It gave a lengthy list of grievances.

5. It declared that the colonies were free and independent.

SUMMARY.

1. The colonies were isolated. The reasons for this were: the location, lack of means of communication, and difference in manners and customs. Various external forces gradually caused them to unite for protection.

2. As early as 1643 the colonies of New England formed a union against the French, Dutch, and Indians.

3. A convention was held at Albany, in 1754, in which an attempt was made to unite all the colonies. The attempt was a failure.

4. The tyranny of England caused the colonies to hold a meeting at New York. They protested against the Stamp Act, which was soon afterwards repealed.

5. The relations of England and the colonies were approaching a crisis. A meeting was held in 1774. In this meeting separation from England was mentioned.

6. The Second Continental Congress was the first meeting in which all the colonies took part. From the stand-point of its work and duration, this was the most important meeting held during the existence of the colonies. Among other measures adopted, the Declaration of Independence and the Articles of Confederation were the most important.

7. The Declaration of Independence officially made the separation. From the date of its adoption the United States begins.

QUESTIONS.

1. Explain fully the hinderances to an early union of the colonies.

2. What made an early confederation necessary?

3. About the New England Confederation tell: (*a*) The reasons for its formation; (*b*) The time it was formed; (*c*) The colonies that took part; (*d*) Its result.

4. Describe the Albany Convention.

5. Why did Parliament tax the colonies? Why did the colonists oppose taxation by Parliament?

6. What papers were adopted by the Congress of 1765? What were the results accomplished by this Congress?

7. What led to the repeal of the Stamp Act?

8. What further acts were offensive to the colonists?

9. About the First Continental Congress tell: (*a*) Where and when it was held; (*b*) Why it was held; (*c*) Who its president was; (*d*) The power of each colony in voting; (*e*) The results of this meeting; (*f*) Who some of the important members were.

10. In reference to the Second Continental Congress, state: (*a*) Where and when it met; (*b*) Who its president was; (*c*) How long this meeting lasted; (*d*) The work performed by it.

11. What was the first step towards a separation from England?

12. Name the committee which drafted the Declaration of Independence. When was the Declaration adopted? Name its principal features. Quote some part of it that you have learned.

13. Attempts at union. Why necessary? Think of the several attempts and tell: (*a*) Where the meetings were held; (*b*) When held; (*c*) The work performed by each meeting. Make an outline taking these facts into consideration.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

Necessity of a Form of Government.—The adoption of the Declaration of Independence launched the colonies into a war with England. To successfully wage this war it was necessary that the colonies should act in harmony. To the Second Continental Congress had been delegated the work of carrying on the war and looking after the interests of the new nation. This body, however, although it was supposed to be the sovereign or central head of the government, found its power so restricted that it could not enforce obedience to its mandates. It often appealed to the States to contribute money towards the support of the war, but they paid no attention to such appeals until they felt inclined to do so. The States were fearful lest Congress might usurp some of their powers. Again, the inability of Congress to raise funds to prosecute the war often caused violent disputes between that body and the Continental army about the latter's pay.

These unfortunate circumstances tended towards hindering the progress of the war. The thirteen States instead of being united seemed to drift farther and farther apart. The weakness of the government under the Second Continental Congress became apparent to the wiser men of the country. It was seen that a stronger and firmer form of government was needed. On the same day that the committee was appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence a resolution was passed by Congress which called for the appointment of a committee to draft Articles of Con-

federation. This committee was appointed on the following day.* It soon made its report to Congress. After debating this report from day to day, Congress finally passed, November 17, 1777, a series of thirteen Articles.

The Constitution and the new government were termed "The Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between all the States of America." See Appendix.

It was generally supposed that this Constitution would meet the demands of the nation. Before these Articles could become the supreme law of the land, however, it was necessary that all of the States should give their consent. To secure this, it required four years, so that they did not become operative until 1781.

Chief Features of the Articles of Confederation:

1. The Confederation was called the United States of America, and was declared to be simply a firm league of friendship between the States. It will thus be seen that the States did not form a nation, but simply an alliance for the advancement of their own interests.

2. The different States retained their sovereignty and independence in almost everything.

3. The Legislative Department of the government was vested in but one body, styled the Congress.

4. Each State was represented by any number of delegates not exceeding seven nor less than two.

5. Although the States had no definite number of Representatives in Congress, but one vote was allowed each State upon any question.

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* The committee was composed of twelve members, as follows: Josiah Bartlett, Samuel Adams, Stephen Hopkins, Roger Sherman, Robert R. Livingstone, John Dickinson, Thomas McKean, Thomas Stone, Thomas Nelson, Joseph Hewes, Edward Rutledge, and Button Gwinnett. John Dickinson, an eminent statesman, did most of the work in connection with the drafting of the Articles of Confederation.

6. There was no national system of courts.

7. No provision was made for a President, but during the adjournment of Congress the power of an executive was vested in a committee of thirteen members, composed of one member from each State. While Congress was in session it was not only the Legislative Department but also the Executive.

8. All national matters such as commerce, taxation, war, and disputes between the States were under the control of Congress; but there was no power given to that body by which it could enforce obedience to its decisions.

9. No amendment could be made to the Articles until it was passed by Congress and agreed upon by the Legislature of every State.

10. The ratification of every State was necessary to adopt the Articles as the supreme law of the land.

Defects of the Articles.—From 1781 until 1789 the thirteen States were governed by the Articles of Confederation. When passed by Congress, they were thought to accomplish many things for the good of the States. But men writing a Constitution cannot always foresee conditions that are apt to arise in the future; therefore, the defects of any new body of laws must be discovered while it is in operation.

The defects of the Articles were soon noticeable. After they had been in force but a short time it was found that they were inadequate, and, further, that they were not strong enough to govern the thirteen States in the alliance. Among the weak features of the Articles were the following:

1. In their purpose.

2. Any State was permitted to be higher than the alliance.

3. Congress consisted of only one body.

4. No definite number of Representatives was specified, and but one vote was allowed to each State.

5. No Judicial or distinct Executive Department. The law could not be interpreted nor executed.

6. Difficulty in amending the Articles.

Explanation of the Defects.—In declaring the Confederation to be simply a firm league of friendship, the acts of the Articles of Confederation were not binding upon any State. Any State, consequently, could at any time it desired leave the league. Such withdrawals, if numerous, would certainly have broken up the Confederation. In the Constitution of the United States the evil was remedied by making the State subordinate to the United States.

In the construction of any legislative body it has been found that by a division into two bodies, or Houses, far better results have been obtained than by a Legislature consisting of but one body. In a two-bodied Legislature one body acts as a check to the rashness and extravagance of the other.

In the membership of a Congress it is always wise to have some definite way of electing or appointing its members. Under the Articles each State had its choice of the number of members it wished to send to Congress. Under the present Constitution each State must accept its proportion of the members. Under the first system each State had to pay the expenses of its Representatives; under the latter the national government pays their expenses. It is right and proper that the national government should do this. A State whose treasury was low, having the choice of the number of Representatives it could send to Congress, would select the lowest number permissible. A rich State, on the other hand, could afford to pay the expense attached to sending the largest number of delegates possible. In the first case the interests of the State might suffer, while in the second the interests of the State might be advanced.

Possibly the greatest defects were the omission of an Executive Department and a Judicial Department. There being no enforcing power, the laws passed by the Second Continental Congress were often disregarded. This evil

was remedied in our present Constitution by the making of an Executive Department, which sees that the laws of the land are executed.

All disputes in law cases were settled by State courts. No appeal could be taken from the decision of these courts, as there was no higher or national court to which to appeal. One State court frequently rendered a decision contrary to that given by the court of another State. This caused endless disputes and general dissatisfaction. Such condition of affairs is hardly possible under our Federal Constitution, for it provides for a system of national courts higher than any State court. If a dispute is not satisfactorily settled in the State courts of to-day, an appeal can be taken to one of the United States courts.

Another weak feature of the Articles was the method provided for amending them. To alter any part of them the consent of all the States was required. This, like the method of ratifying the Articles, would have consumed such a long time that it would have been practically useless to even try to alter or amend them. It required four years to secure the consent of all the States to the ratification of the Articles. Had ten States been deemed sufficient it would have gone into effect in 1778, one year after being proposed. Under the present Constitution the difficulty to amend is not so great.

The Articles of Confederation existed as the fundamental law of the land until 1789. In that year they were replaced by the present Constitution.

SUMMARY.

1. The Second Continental Congress acted as the central government during the Revolutionary War. It possessed little power, and its acts could not be enforced. It was seen that a stronger govern-

ment was needed, and in 1777 the Articles of Confederation were adopted by this Congress. They were not ratified by the States until 1781.

2. Under the new laws all States, large and small, had the same power; no national system of courts was established; the executive and legislative powers were not separated, and the power of the new government was limited.

3. A long time was not required to show that the Articles were defective. After 1781 the government appeared to be no stronger than before. The chief cause was the lack of power given to Congress to enforce its laws.

QUESTIONS.

1. During the Revolutionary period, why was a national government required?

2. What was the work of the committee appointed in June, 1776? When was the report of this committee made? Who constituted the committee?

3. Write, in column form, about the Articles of Confederation: (*a*) Its chief features; (*b*) Its defects.

4. Why was this code of laws defective?

5. The Articles of Confederation: (*a*) Tell what they were; (*b*) By whom written and adopted; (*c*) Date of adoption; (*d*) When ratified; (*e*) How long in force.

CHAPTER VII.

THE MAKING OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The Trade Convention.—The beginning of any government is its most serious stage. If it withstands this crisis its continuance should be very easy. The Articles of Confederation were adopted at a time when their weakness could soon be discovered. A very short time proved that they were deficient. The various public questions which arose from 1781 to 1789 were so poorly met as to convince the people that they were mistaken in the form of government they had established. They saw it was necessary to have some better form of government which would not cause so much friction.

The commerce of the country at this time was increasing. The laws of the different States, however, were of such a nature that they often hindered rather than promoted trade. To remedy these faults and to consider ways of advancing commerce, a Convention was called by Virginia to meet at Annapolis, 1786. The States of Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York were represented in this Convention.

The Trade Convention, besides discussing commerce, touched upon the condition of the country under the Articles of Confederation. Shays's Rebellion, which occurred about this time, alarmed the people and showed them that if the country were to exist and become prosperous another and stronger form of government was immediately needed.

So few being present at this meeting, the Convention adopted an address which was sent to the different States and Congress. The address called for another Convention to meet the next year to consider the state of the Union. Congress, by a resolution, decided that the Convention should meet in Philadelphia, May, 1787.

The Constitutional Convention.—In accordance with the resolution adopted by Congress, delegates met in Independence Hall, May, 1787. The people of the country were generally in favor of this Convention. This is shown by the fact that delegates were present from all the States with the single exception of Rhode Island.

The reason for calling this Convention was the failure of the Articles of Confederation to control the public questions arising from time to time. The Convention's first work was to consider the defects of the Articles and attempt to amend them. This was necessary in order to make them meet the needs of the country and the demands of the people. It was soon found, however, that it was impossible to amend the Articles, and that it would be much better to make a new Constitution. The Convention decided to do this. The delegates worked diligently, but made little progress because of the different conditions existing in the various States.

Plans suggested.—Four plans were submitted to the Convention. None in its entirety was accepted, but the best features of each were placed in the present Constitution. These plans were:

1. **The Virginia Plan,** written by James Madison, proposed to give the government supreme power and thus make the States subordi-

nate. This was opposed by a number of people who believed in the preservation of State sovereignty.

2. **The New Jersey Plan** proposed to give Congress more power than it possessed under the Articles of Confederation. It did not give a remedy for a serious defect in the Articles,—namely, that a State was still on an equal footing with Congress. This plan was presented by William Patterson, of New Jersey.

3. **Hamilton's Plan** was to create a government which would be a mixture of an aristocracy and a monarchy. This plan was immediately rejected.

4. **Pinckney's Plan,** submitted by Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina. No details of this plan are known, as it was lost after the Convention adjourned.

Compromises in the Constitution.—The different plans and the various conditions in the States caused much discussion, which threatened at one time to dissolve the Convention. The delegates from the States could come to an agreement only by compromising. A compromise is an agreement between two or more parties to a dispute in which both sides agree to relinquish some of their claims. Three compromises were effected in the Convention,—namely:

1. The placing of every State, without regard to size or population, on an equal footing in the Senate of the United States by giving each State two members. The Constitution provides that "the Senate shall be composed of two members from each State chosen by the Legislature thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote." In regard to the House of Representatives, the Constitution contains the following: "Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers." This was a compromise between the small and large States.

2. During the existence of slavery, three-fifths of the slaves were to be counted in taking the census, and also in apportioning Representatives among the States. A large part of the population of the Southern

States was composed of slaves, and to give the slave States sufficient power it was agreed that three-fifths of all the slaves were to be counted. This was a compromise between the slave and free States. In accordance with this compromise the Constitution says, "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included in the Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons."

3. The importation of slaves from foreign countries was not to be prohibited until the year 1808. This was also a compromise between the slave and the free States. Providing for this compromise, the Constitution states, "The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person."

The Constitution completed.—On the 17th of September, 1787, the work of the Convention being finished, the Constitution was signed by some of the delegates. Those that did not sign had departed for home before the Constitution was drawn up for signatures. The Constitution was to be submitted to the States, and was to go into effect when ratified by nine States. It was ratified by the different States as follows:

1. Delaware 1787	8. South Carolina . 1788
2. Pennsylvania . . 1787	9. New Hampshire . 1788
3. New Jersey . . . 1787	10. Virginia 1788
4. Georgia 1788	11. New York . . . 1788
5. Connecticut . . . 1788	12. North Carolina . 1789
6. Massachusetts . . 1788	13. Rhode Island . . 1790
7. Maryland 1788	

The Makers of Three Great Papers.—The Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution are three famous and important state documents. The first and the second were the work of the people through their Representatives in the Second Continental Congress, while the third shows the power of the people in an especially called Convention. All three exhibit the immense power the people have in managing the government.

The Declaration of Independence says, "We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States."

The Articles of Confederation say, "We, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify the said Articles of Confederation."

The Constitution says, "We, the people of the United States . . . do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

Men and Constitutions.—The men who met in the Convention and framed the Constitution of the United States were really the same who had met some years before and composed the Articles of Confederation. How different the results by practically the same men! One set of laws endured for a short time only, while the other has lasted for more than a century. There is some excuse for the weakness of the former. No experience was possessed by the

men of the time in the making of laws. In the making of the Constitution, the men were guided by the defects of the Articles. James Wilson, one of the men who signed the Declaration of Independence, wrote of the new Constitution, "Regarding it in every point of view with a candid and disinterested mind, I am bold to assert that it is the best form of government which has been offered to the world." The late distinguished statesman Gladstone said, "The American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."

The Federalist.—When the Constitution of the United States had been adopted by the Convention of 1787, it was submitted to the States for ratification. Some of the States ratified it, while others did not think it met their ideas of a good government. Among the States that opposed the ratification of the Constitution the foremost was the State of New York. In order to secure this State's approval Alexander Hamilton conceived the plan of explaining the workings of the Constitution in plain but convincing language. These explanations were made in a series of essays written by Alexander Hamilton, John Jay, and James Madison. They were published in the *Independent Gazetteer*, a New York journal, and were addressed to the people of New York urging them to adopt the Constitution. The essays, now known as "The Federalist," were always signed under the assumed name "Publius." There were eighty-five essays written. They are considered masterpieces of argument. As a whole, they stand foremost among documents written upon government. The services of "The Federalist" were invaluable, as, no doubt, it secured the ratification of the Constitution by New York.

Beginning of the New Government.—Nine States were required to give their consent before the Constitution could go into effect. Until this was obtained, the Second Continental Congress and the Articles of Confederation were to remain in force. New Hampshire gave its consent on June 21, 1788, making the necessary number. In consequence, steps were taken by the Continental Congress to arrange the details of installing the new government. A committee was appointed in July, 1788, to report a plan. They reported, in September, 1788, in the following resolution:

"*Resolved*, That the first Wednesday in January next be the day of appointing the electors in the several States, which before the said day shall have ratified the said Constitution; that the first Wednesday in February next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States, and vote for a President; and that the first Wednesday in March next be the time, and the present seat of Congress the place, for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

The resolution was adopted and its provisions carried out. The "first Wednesday in March next" fell on the fourth day of that month, 1789. Afterwards Congress made March 4 the regular inauguration day. The first inauguration was delayed till April 30, 1789, because of the delay of Washington and the other government officials in reaching New York. All succeeding inaugurations have been held on March 4 excepting those which fell on a Sunday, in which case it was held on the Monday following.

The new government nominally went into effect June 21, 1788, when the ninth State ratified the Constitution, but its actual operation did not begin until April 30, 1789.

	Name.	Date.	Meeting Place.	No. Colonies.	Object.
Important Conventions	1. New England Colonies Convention.	1643	Boston.	4	For protection against the Dutch and Indians.
	2. Albany Convention.	1754	Albany, New York.	7	To prevent the encroachments of the French and Indians.
	3. Stamp Act Convention.	1765	New York.	9	To resist the Stamp Act.
	4. First Continental Congress.	1774	Philadelphia.	12	To resist the oppression of Great Britain.
	5. Second Continental Congress.	1775–1789	Philadelphia.	13	To govern the States during the war with England, and to free them from the mother country.
	6. Trade Convention.	1786	Annapolis.	5	To discuss commerce.
	7. Constitutional Convention.	1787	Philadelphia.	12	To revise the Articles of Confederation.

SUMMARY.

1. At the Trade Convention, held in 1786, ways and means of improving the commerce of the country were discussed. Few delegates being present, nothing could be done. Those in attendance spoke of the poor form of government. An address was issued which called for another Convention, in 1787, to consider the present defective form of government.

2. The Convention met in Philadelphia. Instead of amending the Articles of Confederation an entirely new form was proposed. This was afterwards adopted and ratified.

3. The thirteen States were different in many ways. To make one nation of them it was necessary to make all agree. The diverse interests were brought together by compromises :

(*a*) Giving the small and large States the same power in the Senate. In the House the membership was based on population.

(*b*) The counting of three-fifths of the slaves in making the population of a State for representation.

(*c*) Forbidding the prohibition of the slave-trade before 1808.

4. Before the new form of government could go into operation the consent of nine States was necessary. Not all the States were disposed in its favor. Some opposed it because they did not understand its provisions. A series of papers, written by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, were issued. In them, parts of the Constitution were explained and reasons given why the people should ratify it. Through these papers the consent of New York was secured.

5. Nine States were necessary to cause a change in the form of government. When this was secured, a resolution providing for the installation of the new government was adopted by the Second Continental Congress. The day fixed was March 4, 1789, but delays postponed its beginning till April 30, 1789.

QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the purpose and result of the Trade Convention.

2. Answer the following questions about the Constitutional Convention: (*a*) Why it was held; (*b*) Where and when held; (*c*) The names of the States represented; (*d*) The names and features of the plans suggested; (*e*) The compromises; (*f*) The names, in order of time, of the States ratifying it.

3. What relation does a body of men hold to the success of any venture or work such as the Constitution?

4. Explain fully the authorship and influence of "The Federalist."

5. What steps were taken by the Second Continental Congress to place the Constitution in operation?

6. Conventions in the United States. Make an outline showing: (*a*) The names of each; (*b*) The date when held; (*c*) The place of meeting; (*d*) The number of colonies represented in each; (*e*) The object to be attained; (*f*) The result.

7. Define constitution, convention, compromise.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

PREAMBLE.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

The Preamble.—The word preamble means that which begins or goes before; as applied to the Constitution of a State or country, it means a clause which goes before the body of the Constitution. It briefly enumerates all the reasons for and purposes of the adoption of the Constitution. The preamble of the Constitution of the United States gives these reasons:

1. To form a more perfect union.
2. To establish justice.
3. To insure domestic tranquillity.
4. To provide for the common defence.
5. To promote the general welfare.
6. To secure the blessings of liberty for ourselves and our posterity.

Explanation of the Reasons.—The country, owing to the many defects of the Articles of Confederation, was in a very bad condition. The weakness of the Articles was the main reason for holding a Constitutional Convention. It is natural, therefore, that this reason should come first,—namely, "a more perfect union."

From the earliest history of the colonies, and until the year 1789, the system of courts and the method of administering justice were very incomplete. No remedy was found under the Articles, for they did not provide for a national system of courts. The courts of the States were the highest in power. As you have been told, appeals could not be taken from the decisions of these courts, as there was no higher body to which to appeal. The natural result of this was that the verdicts of one State court were often directly opposed to those of another. Justice is one of the bases upon which a good and successful nation must be built. This fact was clear in the minds of those men who made the Constitution. To remedy this defect of the Articles a system of national courts, higher than any State court or group of State courts, was provided for in the Constitution, and consequently mentioned in the preamble.

"To secure domestic tranquillity" a power higher than the States was provided for in the nation, and thus all cause for State jealousy was obliterated. Before 1789 the several States were continually disputing with each other to such an extent that it almost led to open warfare.

"Common defence" means that all the protection of the nation was guaranteed to each State when needed.

"General welfare" was to be secured by all of the States acting in harmony.

All the benefits of the Constitution and the "blessings of liberty" were to be not only for the people of the United States who lived about 1789, but for their children and their descendants.

As we proceed in the study of the Constitution we will see how all of these reasons and purposes expressed in the preamble were carried out. We will also see how these provisions mentioned in the Constitution caused violent dis-

cussions at different times. We think you will also be proud of the strong government which it is your natural privilege to enjoy. It required strong hands and wise men to make this government. It will be your duty when you become older to meet some perplexing problem of national importance. In your hands your forefathers and your fathers place the destiny of the nation.

ARTICLE I.

Legislative Powers Vested in Congress.

Sec. I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Legislative Department.—The government of the United States is divided into three parts, each performing a special function in carrying on the government,—they are:

1. The Legislative Department.
2. The Executive Department.
3. The Judicial Department.

Legislative means pertaining to law. The Legislative Department is that branch of the government which makes the laws. This power to make laws is vested in a Congress, which consists of two bodies,—namely:

1. The Senate.
2. The House of Representatives.

Congress.—Two Houses.—Under the Articles there was but one house, by which all the laws were made. Each State was represented in this body by at least two and no more than seven members. We have already discussed the advisability of having a Legislature made up of two bodies.

It has been found that where there are two bodies one acts as a check upon the ignorance and extravagance of the other. The members of one body very often discover serious mistakes in bills passed by the other body. Many blunders and errors are thus discovered and corrected. At the present time all civilized countries have their Legislative Department divided into two departments.

In the United States the higher body, or Senate, is made up of men who represent the State, while the lower body, or House of Representatives, is made up of men who represent the people. The number of members in the upper house varies with the number of States. As new States are admitted the number of members in this body increases. The number of members in the House of Representatives varies with the population of the States. All States have the same representation in the Senate, and consequently the same power. Delaware, which is a small State, has as many Senators as New York, which is a very large State. The former, however, has but one Representative in the House of Representatives, while the latter has thirty-seven. This arrangement of representation in the Senate and House of Representatives was the result of a compromise in the Constitutional Convention, discussed on page 47.

LEGISLATIVE BODIES.

Country.	First Part.	Second Part.
United States	Senate.	House of Representatives.
England	House of Lords.	House of Commons.
Germany	Bundesrath.	Reichstag.
Switzerland	State Council.	National Council.
France	Senate.	Chamber of Deputies.

Composition of the House of Representatives.

Sec. II. 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Composition of the House of Representatives.—The House of Representatives is one branch of Congress. In a large country like ours it is impossible for all the people to have a voice in the government. It is necessary, therefore, for a certain number of people in each State to choose from among their number a person to act for or to represent them. The person selected is called a Representative. The Representatives from all the States make up the lower body of Congress, called the House of Representatives.

A Representative is chosen directly by the people of a State, and his term of office is two years.

Elector means a qualified voter.

Qualifications means having the properties or qualities necessary to secure or hold a certain position.

Each State Legislature is composed of two parts or branches. The more numerous branch is that containing the greater number of members. A voter or elector must possess certain qualifications to vote for a member of the more numerous branch of the State Legislature, and the latter part of this clause means that if a voter or elector can vote for a member of the more numerous branch of the State Legislature the same qualifications will entitle him to vote for a Representative in Congress. Suppose Mr. Rawlinson is a candidate for the more numerous branch of the State Legislature. Mr. Thomas is a candi-

date for Representative to Congress at Washington. The Constitution provides that if Mr. Walton have the requisite or necessary qualifications to vote for Mr. Rawlinson the same qualifications will entitle him to vote for Mr. Thomas. The object of this clause is to give all qualified persons a voice in the making of the laws not only of the State but also of the nation.

Qualifications of Representatives.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Qualifications of a Representative.—A person to be a Representative must be twenty-five years of age, seven years a citizen of the United States, and at the time of his election must live in the State which he is to represent.

It will be seen from this clause that a foreign-born person may become a Representative. He must, however, first become a citizen, which takes five years, then he must be a citizen of the United States seven years, making twelve years the shortest time in which a foreigner could become a Representative. This is proper. A man who lives in a country twelve years ought to know a great many things about that country. So that, if a foreigner, who has any amount of intelligence, can acquire the knowledge that a person who wishes to be a Representative should have, he can, after he has lived as a citizen of our country for seven years, be eligible to that position.

A Representative must live, when elected, in the State electing him. After being elected, he could, if he desired, remove to another State and still be a Representative of the

State from which he removed. He could only be a Representative of that State until it was time to select another Representative in his place. A Representative seldom leaves the State which he has been chosen to represent in Congress. The people of a State always choose one of their own number for Representative who knows their needs, and one who will remain a resident of the State. In England a man may be elected a member of Parliament without being a resident of the place which he represents. Thus, a man living in Birmingham, if he is chosen, may represent Dublin, Ireland. When our forefathers made the Constitution they thought it right that the honor to represent a community or State should be conferred upon a person living in that community. A man living in Pennsylvania knows the needs and desires of that State better than a man who lives in Texas.

Apportionment of Representatives and Direct Taxes—Census.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such a manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

Census.—Enumeration means counting the inhabitants or people. This census is compulsory on the part of Congress, and is taken every ten years. The uses of a census are:

1. To fix the number of Representatives of each State in Congress.
2. To form a basis for the laying of direct taxes.
3. As a matter of history to compare the growth of one country with that of another.

The Constitution went into effect in 1789. Previous to this time no enumeration of the inhabitants of the country had been made, consequently the number of persons in each State was unknown, and it was impossible to tell exactly how many Representatives each State should send to Congress. In order to delay the new government as little as possible a rough estimate of each State's population was made. This basis of representation lasted until the first census was taken. The following table shows the number of Representatives allotted to each State in the First Congress:

New Hampshire	3	Delaware	1
Massachusetts	8	Maryland	6
Rhode Island	1	Virginia	10
Connecticut	5	North Carolina	5
New York	6	South Carolina	5
New Jersey	4	Georgia	3
Pennsylvania	8		

By the Constitution Congress was given three years in which to take the first census, but immediately after their first meeting the importance of this work became apparent, and instead of postponing it to the last of the three years,

it was commenced at once, and completed in 1790. The twelfth census was taken in 1900.

Census.	Year.	Population.
First	1790	3,929,214
Fifth	1830	12,866,020
Seventh	1850	23,191,876
Eleventh	1890	62,982,244
Twelfth	1900	76,295,220

Basis of Representation.—Under this clause the following were counted in the basis of representation:

1. All free persons.
2. Persons bound to service,—namely, convicts and apprentices.
3. Three-fifths of all other persons,—viz., slaves.

This last part, as previously stated, was the result of a compromise between the free and slave States when the Constitution was being made. The South did not want to permit the slaves to vote for Representatives, but simply wanted them counted when Representatives were apportioned. The North objected to this, and said that if the negroes were to be deprived of the right to vote for Representatives they should not be included in the basis of representation. They settled this question by agreeing to count three-fifths of the slaves in each State. The South having many slaves and comparatively few whites, this was the only way by which the Southern States could be properly represented. If the whites alone had been counted the South would have had few Representatives, and consequently no power to resist any attempt that might be made to interfere with slavery.

New Basis of Representation.—Under the clause of the Constitution now being studied, three-fifths of the slaves were counted in the basis of representation; but when the slaves were liberated it became necessary to amend this clause. The amendment will be found in what is known as the Fourteenth Amendment, and it reads as follows:

Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed.

It will thus appear that all persons in the States except untaxed Indians are included in the basis of representation.

Method of Apportionment.—Taking the twelfth census as the basis, the method of apportionment will now be considered. By an Act of Congress approved January 16, 1901, the number of Representatives was fixed at 386. This number divided into the entire population entitled to representation will give the number of persons necessary for one Representative.

In taking the census all persons living within the territory of the United States are counted. Those living in the States are allowed Representatives, while those living in Territories are not allowed Representatives. Therefore, the population of the Territories and the untaxed Indians must be deducted from the entire population to find the exact number of persons entitled to elect Representatives. The entire population by the census of 1900 was 76,295,220, and the number of persons not entitled to representation was 1,729,314. Deducting this number from the entire population and dividing by 386 we find that the number of persons necessary to elect a Representative is 193,175. This is called the ratio of representation.

Having thus secured the ratio of representation, the population of any State divided by 193,175 will give the number of Representatives to which the State is entitled.

If it should appear that any State had a less number of inhabitants than is required for one Representative, such State is entitled to one, so as to give it representation in the lower House of Congress.

Each State is divided by its own Legislature into as many Congressional districts as the number of its members in the House of Representatives. It sometimes happens that a State Legislature does not redistrict a State after the latest census. If there be any increase in that State's representation in Congress such additional members do not represent any particular district, but are elected by the whole State, and are, therefore, called Congressmen-at-large.

If a State entitled to thirty-one Representatives should have but twenty-eight Congressional districts, three Congressmen-at-large would be elected. If, on the other hand, the representation of any State decreased, and the Legislature should fail to redistrict the State according to the new number, all the Representatives of that State would be chosen as Congressmen-at-large.

The Act of Congress under which the following apportionment was made recognizes 193,175 as the ratio of representation; but if the population of each State be divided by this number, it will be found that Maine and Nebraska will fall short of the number of Representatives given to them by this Act.

Congress, however, not wishing to diminish the number of Representatives of any State, decided that Maine and Nebraska, although not having the requisite population, should have as many members in the lower branch of Congress as they had under the former apportionment.

Representatives are apportioned among the States as follows:

State.	Number of Representatives.	State.	Number of Representatives.
Alabama	9	Nebraska	6
Arkansas	7	Nevada	1
California	8	New Hampshire	2
Colorado	3	New Jersey	10
Connecticut	5	New York	37
Delaware	1	North Carolina	10
Florida	3	North Dakota	2
Georgia	11	Ohio	21
Idaho	1	Oklahoma	5
Illinois	25	Oregon	2
Indiana	13	Pennsylvania	32
Iowa	11	Rhode Island	2
Kansas	8	South Carolina	7
Kentucky	11	South Dakota	2
Louisiana	7	Tennessee	10
Maine	4	Texas	16
Maryland	6	Utah	1
Massachusetts	14	Vermont	2
Michigan	12	Virginia	10
Minnesota	9	Washington	3
Mississippi	8	West Virginia	5
Missouri	16	Wisconsin	11
Montana	1	Wyoming	1

The foregoing table shows that there are 391 Representatives, and as new States are admitted into the Union, this number will be increased.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Filling Vacancies in the House of Representatives.—A vacancy is an unoccupied or empty office. An office may become vacant in various ways:

1. By death.
2. By resignation.
3. By removal.
4. By continued and serious illness.

While Congress is in session it is very important that all Representatives of a State should be present. It is the duty of these men to see that the interests of their States are carefully looked after and protected. If there be one Representative away from Congress, or if there be one vacancy in the House, 193,175 people are not represented. To guard against any such contingency as this, the Constitution mentions a way in which such vacancies may be filled.

The executive authority of a State is the Governor. A writ of election is a paper issued and signed by the Governor and sent to a sheriff notifying him to hold an election to fill a vacancy mentioned in the writ.

When the Governor becomes aware of a vacancy he issues a writ of election, and an election is soon held to fill it. The man elected Representative in case of a vacancy only serves the remainder of the term of the former member.

Selection of Officers—Power of Impeachment.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Officers of the House.—The House now contains three hundred and ninety-one members. In such a large body it is necessary to have some one to direct the movements of the members, to appoint committees, and preserve order. The duties are performed by a Representative chosen by his fellow-members. He is called the Speaker. He is allowed to vote on all questions because he represents some district. For an illustration, let us suppose Mr. Allen represents Philadelphia in the House and he is elected Speaker of that body. If he were not allowed to vote upon all questions the people of Philadelphia whom he represents would have no voice in the government. The Speaker really

performs the duties of two offices, he represents a number of people and at the same time guides the affairs of the House. To be selected Speaker of the House is considered a high honor, and is sought by many Representatives.

The members of the House also choose these officers, who are not Representatives but simply workmen:

1. Chaplain.
2. Clerks.
3. Sergeant-at-arms.
4. Door-keepers.
5. Postmasters.
6. Pages.

Duties of the Officers.—These officers are elected by each house at the beginning of Congress. At the beginning of each session each house, before it proceeds to business, is opened with prayer by its chaplain. This gives Congress a religious aspect and indicates the belief of the American people in a Supreme Being.

The clerks have charge of the journal. In this book all the proceedings of each house are carefully recorded. Other clerks copy and read bills which are introduced.

The sergeant-at-arms preserves order in the House when the Speaker does not secure it immediately. The Speaker occupies a position in the front of the House. When he strikes the gavel the members usually come to order; but, during times of great excitement, the members often lose control of themselves and do not heed the Speaker's command. He then directs the sergeant-at-arms to go among these disorderly members on the floor of the House and restore order. This he does, not by force or argument, but by means of a symbol of his office. This symbol is called the mace. This stands in the fore part of the assembly room. When the Speaker finds it difficult to control members he directs the sergeant-at-arms to take the mace from its position and carry it among the disorderly members, who

immediately recognize it as the symbol of high authority. It is a signal to desist from further disorder. The mace consists of a number of ebony sticks, each terminating with a spear-head. These are bundled together, and projecting from the top is an American eagle made of metal. The mace is the relic of an old custom among the Romans. To them it was always the symbol of the highest authority. The sergeant-at-arms, when directed by the Speaker, has the power also to compel the attendance of absent members.

The door-keepers have charge of the entrances and exits of the building. The postmasters receive the enormous mail directed to the members, assort it, and deliver it to the proper persons. The pages are scattered throughout the building. They perform the different errands on which they are sent by the members.

Impeachment.—The accusation against a public officer for bad conduct, or for some crime committed while he holds office, is called impeachment. The object of impeachment is twofold: first, to deter public officials from committing wrong actions; second, to protect the government by removing such persons from office, if found guilty. The House alone has the power to bring the charge of impeachment.

Of the Senate.

Sec. III. 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

Senate Composition.—The Senate is the name applied to the higher body of Congress. In comparison with the House it is a much smaller body, and, as a rule, contains abler men.

A Senator is chosen by the Legislature of a State for a term of six years. Each State has two Senators. Knowing

the number of States, one can readily estimate the number of Senators. Rhode Island and New York have the same power in the Senate, although the former contains fewer people in comparison with the latter. The giving of two Senators to each State was the result of a compromise. By giving to each State, large and small, the same number of Senators, the consent of the smaller States to the ratification of the Constitution was secured.

The membership of the Senate increases very slowly. This is due to the fact that Territories are not admitted very rapidly into the Union as States. The land not taken up by the States makes Territories, and until such Territories obtain a sufficient population to entitle them to admission as States many years must necessarily elapse. In the House this is different. The number of members varies according to the population. A State having a great increase is likely to have its number of Representatives enlarged. After each census is taken it is generally found that the greatest increases in population are in those localities which are already States. An established State can never have its Senators increased nor diminished in number, but if its population becomes more vast its representation in the House becomes larger. If, on the other hand, the population of a State decreases its representation in the House decreases. If an increase in population occurs in all the States, it will be apparent that while the States gain nothing so far as the membership of the Senate is concerned the membership of the House increases.

Membership of Congress.	1790.	1908.
Senate	26	92
House of Representatives	65	391

Classification of Senators—Filling of Vacancies.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

Classes of Senators.—It is not a good plan to have all the members of Congress go out of office at the same time. After each election many new men are chosen and sent to Washington. The new Representatives and Senators oftentimes are not thoroughly acquainted with public affairs. To avoid any blunders which might be made by these inexperienced men, the Constitution provides a way in which Congress will always contain sufficient experienced members to protect the government. The members of the Senate are now chosen to serve a term of six years. At the beginning of the government, in 1789, the Senators of the States were divided into three classes. The members of each class were determined by lot. Those in the first class were to serve two years; those in the second, four years; and those in the third, six years. The arrangement, in its operation now, causes one-third of the members of the Senate to be chosen every two years. In case the same men are not chosen to succeed themselves, there is always at least two-thirds of the membership of the Senate composed of experienced members.

The reason that the House of Representatives was not

divided into classes was due to the fact that the term of office of a Representative is but two years. This was purposely made so, in order that the people, if they so desired, might change their opinion on public questions and select new Representatives who would carry out the wishes of their constituents.

First Senate.	Year.	Members.
First Class	1789.	8 Senators.
Second Class	1789.	9 Senators.
Third Class	1789.	9 Senators.

This classification was necessary only in 1789. As each new State was admitted the new Senators were assigned to that class which did not have an equal number with the rest.

Vacancies in the Senate.—As the State Legislature elects the Senator, it is right that it should have the power to fill vacancies. Whenever there is a vacancy in the Senate it may be filled in two ways,—namely:

1. If the Legislature is in session when the vacancy occurs, a Senator is immediately chosen to represent the State.

2. If the Legislature is not in session, it would take too much time, trouble, and expense to call its members together for the single purpose of choosing a successor to fill the vacancy. To avoid this the Governor or executive authority of the State is given the power to appoint a person as Senator.

The person selected Senator by the Governor, however, serves only until the Legislature meets again. The person

selected by the State Legislature to act as Senator serves only the remainder of the unexpired term.

Election of Senators by the People.—State laws require a majority vote of the Legislature to elect a national Senator. In any Legislature composed of but two parties one is likely to have a greater number than the other. The election of a Senator in this case is an easy matter. In a Legislature composed of three strong parties, a division of the total membership may be so made as to prevent any party from having a majority.

Members of the State Legislature, 117.

First Party . . .	50
Second Party . .	45
Third Party . . .	22

A majority of this membership would be fifty-nine. The Legislature meets to elect a Senator. On the first ballot no one has a majority. The Legislature, in accordance with the law, meets every day, Sundays excepted, and votes again. If the members persist in voting for the same candidate for whom they voted on the first ballot the vote will always be the same, and no Senator will be elected.

The non-election of a Senator may also be the result when there are but two parties in the Legislature. In such case, the majority party is divided into factions and cannot agree on one candidate. Each faction presents a candidate. The minority party also nominates a candidate. There can be no result unless the factions in the majority party combine, or the minority party and one of the factions vote for one candidate. When no combination of forces occurs the Legislature adjourns without electing a Senator. This leaves a State with but one vote in the United States Senate.

The Constitution gives the Governor the power to fill a

vacancy which happens during the recess of the State Legislature. The Senate, being the judge of the election and qualifications of its own members, has decided that a Governor cannot appoint any person as Senator when the State Legislature has failed to elect. The power of election belongs to that body, and it should fulfil that function or else the place should remain vacant. When the office has been regularly filled and a vacancy occurs while the Legislature is not in session, there is no question as to the Governor's right to appoint.

In 1899 the States of California, Utah, Delaware, and Pennsylvania did not have two Senators in Washington, because the Legislature in each of these States failed to elect. Important business was transacted during this year, and the people in these States did not have their proper representation.

The frequent occurrence of this state of affairs has led Congress to attempt to amend the Constitution so as to provide for the election of United States Senators by a direct vote of the people, but the necessary two-thirds vote for such amendment has never been secured.

The old idea was that the people and the State in which they lived were two separate bodies, and that each should be represented in Congress. The people and the State to-day are one, and cannot be separated.

The people suffer the effects of evil legislation. When the people select Representatives who legislate against the best interests of the public they have no just cause for complaint. But when United States Senators, elected by State Legislatures, fail to serve the people properly, then the latter can complain justly. The people should elect their Senators. If this were the case, each State would be assured of having two Senators at Washington at all times.

Qualifications of Senators.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

Senators.—Qualifications.—It was intended that Senators should have more important duties to perform than Representatives; hence, to secure able and good men, the qualifications of this office were increased. To make them conscientious in the performance of their duties the term of office was made six years. A Senator must be at least thirty years of age and nine years a citizen of the United States. Like a Representative, he must live in the State when elected to the Senate.

From this it is seen that a naturalized citizen may become a Senator. It would take him, however, five years to become a citizen of the United States, and this, together with the nine years' residence, would make a period of fourteen years. He must, of course, have the other qualification of age.

Vice-President to be President of the Senate.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Senate.—Vice-President.—The only public duty which the Vice-President performs is acting as President of the Senate. He succeeds to the Presidency of the United States when there is a vacancy in that office.

The Vice-President cannot vote on all questions. Each State has two votes in the Senate; if the Vice-President had a vote on all questions it would really be giving another vote to the State from which he comes. Suppose the Vice-

President comes from New Jersey. This State has two Senators, and if the Vice-President could vote at all times New Jersey would have three votes. This would be unfair to the other States, as they are permitted to have but two votes. There is but one exception to the rule that the Vice-President shall have no vote. Whenever the Senators are equally divided in opinion on any subject, meaning by this a tie vote, the Vice-President is allowed to cast the deciding vote. The object of this is to facilitate business. This tie voting is of seldom occurrence, and consequently it does not give one State any material advantage over another. The Speaker of the House represents the people of the district from which he comes, hence he is entitled to and has a vote on all questions. The Vice-President represents no district, hence he is denied the right to vote except in case of tie, which right is bestowed upon him by the Constitution.

Of the Officers of the Senate.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore* in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Officers of the Senate.—Sometimes the Vice-President cannot attend to his duties as President of the Senate. In this case a president from among the Senators is chosen to act when the Vice-President is absent. He is called president *pro tempore*, which means that he is president for the time. He is permitted to vote on all questions, as he is a a Senator. In the House, when the Speaker is away, a Speaker *pro tempore*, selected from among the members, acts as presiding officer.

When the Vice-President becomes President of the United States he no longer acts as an officer of the Senate. When

this happens, the president *pro tempore* acts as President of the Senate until the close of that Congress.

In case the Vice-President dies or becomes President, his office remains vacant until the next Presidential election. This has happened many times in our history, an illustration being when Vice-President Hobart died during McKinley's administration.

Like the House, the Senate chooses officers who are not members, but simply workmen.

Body.	Number of Members.	Term.	Elected by	Age.	Citizen of United States.	Presiding Officer.	Impeachment.
House.	391	2 years.	People.	25 years.	7 years.	Speaker.	Brings charge.
Senate.	92	6 years.	State Legislature.	30 years.	9 years.	Vice-President.	Tries accused.

Senate to try Impeachments

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Impeachment, as previously stated, is a charge against a public officer for improper performance of duty or for some crime while in office. Impeachment cases in the United States government must take this course:

1. Impeachment, or the charge, must be made by the House of Representatives.

2. Trial of the accused person by the Senate.

When any member of the House of Representatives believes any government official guilty of some misconduct, he may make a charge in the House against such person;

this charge is called an impeachment. If a sufficient number of members think there is a good reason for such a course, the charge in the form of a bill is passed.

The Senate is chosen to try cases of impeachment because it is a much smaller body and composed of abler men than the House, hence justice is more apt to be obtained. Before trying the case, each Senator must take a special oath or affirmation to do justice to the accused person.

An oath is a solemn declaration to tell the truth. It is made with one hand upon the Bible. Some people object to the use of the Bible for this purpose. They are allowed to affirm or make an affirmation. When affirming, one simply promises to tell the whole truth. A violation of an oath or affirmation is a serious crime, and is called perjury. The object of the oath-taking is to make the trial more solemn and to secure justice for the accused person.

After a trial by the Senate, two-thirds of the members present, if such number be a quorum, are necessary to convict an accused person. If the members present be eighty-four, the number necessary to convict would be two-thirds of that number, or fifty-six.

The Vice-President presides at all trials of impeachment with but one exception. When the President of the United States is on trial for impeachment the Vice-President is not permitted to preside. Ambition sometimes leads men into temptation. Anything, even to wrong-doing, will be done to obtain what they desire. This wrong ambition is harmful in two ways: it degrades the person performing it, and those brought in connection with it are unjustly hindered. It is a man's duty to surmount the temptations of life, but when he is too weak in will to do so the temptations should be kept far from him. The Constitution wisely places a strange presiding officer over the Senate when the

President is tried. The regular officer is superseded by the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court. As the Vice-President succeeds the President in case of removal, it would be very unwise, when the latter is on trial, to have the former preside. The reason for this is that he might exercise his power as presiding officer to have the President convicted in order that he himself might become President. This power, if used at all, would most likely be upon decisions where there might be a doubt as to the truthfulness and admission of certain evidence. The Chief Justice is not given any vote upon the verdict.

The Vice-President has no vote in impeachment cases, as it would be of no benefit. If the Senators present be eighty-four and the vote be forty-two on one side and forty-two on the other, the Vice-President's vote would make but forty-three on either side. The number required to convict is two-thirds of the members present, or fifty-six. The additional vote would make no deciding change in the result, so that it might as well be left uncast. He is given the right to vote on all questions in which a tie vote has resulted. His vote is of service only when a majority vote is required; it is powerless when a two-thirds vote is necessary.

Impeachment Cases.—Impeachments are of rare occurrence. Only eight cases have occurred in the history of the United States, and of these but one resulted in conviction. The following are the cases:

1. William Blount . .	1799.	Senator.	Acquitted.
2. John Pickering . .	1803.	Judge.	Acquitted.
3. Samuel Chase . . .	1804.	Judge.	Acquitted.
4. James H. Peck . .	1830.	Judge.	Acquitted.
5. W. H. Humphries .	1862.	Judge.	Convicted.
6. Andrew Johnson .	1868.	President.	Acquitted.
7. W. W. Belknap .	1876.	Secretary of War.	Acquitted.
8. Charles Swayne . .	1905.	Judge.	Acquitted.

Impeachment of Johnson.—This was the most important case in our history. In 1867 Congress passed a bill which became a law forbidding the President to remove any one from office without the consent of the Senate. This law was called the "Tenure of Office Act," and was repealed in 1887. The President of the United States is the first citizen of the land. It is his duty to execute the law, and of all persons he himself should be the first to see that he sets an example to his fellow-citizens by obeying all the laws. President Johnson, despite the Tenure of Office Act, removed the Secretary of War, E. M. Stanton, and appointed another man, General Grant, to fill the vacancy. This he did without the consent of the Senate.

This action of the President was such a plain and open violation of the law that the House brought charges against him. He was tried by the Senate, Chief Justice Chase presiding. A two-thirds vote was necessary for conviction. Fifty-four votes were cast, thirty-five for conviction and nineteen for acquittal. There was one vote less than the required number to convict, and the President was therefore acquitted.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Judgment in Impeachment.—A trial of impeachment can have but two results:

1. The person is found not guilty and is acquitted.
2. The person is found guilty and is punished.

If the person is acquitted there is no punishment imposed. He still holds his office and everything proceeds as

before. If the person is found guilty he is punished. This punishment is called judgment. Judgment is the punishment inflicted upon a person found guilty by impeachment. The only punishment which the Senate can impose is the removal of the convicted person from office. As a consequence of this punishment he is never permitted to hold another office under the United States government.

An office of honor is one in which a person performs some duty for the government without receiving any pay for his services.

An office of profit is one in which a person receives compensation for the performance of work, such as Senator, Representative, or judge. Generally a position of profit is also one of honor.

Although the Senate can only remove a person from office in cases of impeachment, that person may be further punished under the laws of the country. Suppose Mr. Black is Secretary of the Treasury. While in office he defrauds the government of a large sum of money. This is discovered, and by impeachment he is removed from office. Any citizen can now have Mr. Black arrested for embezzlement of public funds. He is then tried in a court before a judge and jury, and if found guilty he may be sentenced to a term of years in prison.

Control of Congressional Elections.

Sec. IV. 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

Election of Senators and Representatives.—This clause refers to the method by which members of Congress are

to be elected. The Legislature is the law-making body in each State. The Legislature of each State has the power to prescribe the manner and time of the election of members of Congress from that State. Congress, however, may change any law which the State Legislature may make on this subject. This power is generally left to the States, because each State can best judge of its own conveniences. January might be a good time for the meeting of the State Legislature in some States and a very bad time in others. The climate of Wisconsin at that time of the year is very severe. It oftentimes would be impossible for the people to leave their homes to vote. Most States, however, elect their Representatives in November and their Senators as soon as the terms expire.

Congress has some power over the time and manner of election of Senators and Representatives, because a State Legislature might neglect to look after this matter, or it might make some arrangement which would interfere with the work of the government at Washington.

The meeting of the State Legislature is generally held at the State capital, and if Congress should try to change this meeting-place great inconvenience to members might result.

Time for Assembling of Congress.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday of December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Meetings of Congress.—On the first Monday in December of each year Congress meets. This date may be changed by Congress, but since 1789 it has remained the same.

Each Congress consists of two regular sessions,—the first or long session, and the second or short session. Whenever some serious question arises when Congress is not in

session, the President of the United States has the power to convene the members of Congress. This session is called an extraordinary or special session. When a Congress has a special session it makes the number of sessions three,—viz., the long session, the short session, and the special session.

The First Congress held its sessions from 1789 to 1791. Its first or long session began on the first Monday of December, 1789. It convened for its last or short session on the first Monday of December, 1790, and continued until the 4th of March, 1791. The Sixtieth Congress began its long session on the first Monday of December, 1907. Its short session will last from the first Monday in December, 1908, until March 4, 1909.

Powers of Each House.

Sec. V. 1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

Each House the Judge of the Qualifications of its Members.—Whenever there is a dispute as to whether a Senator or Representative has the proper qualifications to entitle him to office, the disagreement is settled in the house of which the man is to be a member. Such disputes concerning a Senator are settled or decided by the Senate; those concerning a Representative, by the House. For instance, Mr. Cressman is elected Senator in Pennsylvania. Some person disputes the fact that he secured a sufficient number of votes to entitle him to office. A protest against Mr. Cressman's election could only be made to the Senate. That body would by a vote decide whether or not he is entitled to a seat.

A quorum is that number of Senators in the Senate, or the number of Representatives in the House, necessary to do business. A majority of all the members of each body is necessary to transact business. A majority is more than half of the whole number.

Taking the number of Senators and Representatives now in Congress, it is suggested that pupils determine the number which constitutes a majority of each house.

If less than a quorum appear, no business can be transacted. The members present, however, may impose fines for non-attendance. It is very important to fix by law the necessary number of members to constitute a quorum, or laws might be made for the whole country when but few members of Congress were present. It is also important that fines and punishments be imposed upon those members who frequently stay away from Congress, as a large number of members might absent themselves purposely, thus preventing a quorum from being present. By doing this they could hinder the business of the country. If upon the call of the roll there appear to be no quorum present, the presiding officer instructs the sergeant-at-arms to arrest and bring before the bar of the house all absent members.

Each House to determine its Own Rules.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Rules of Each House.—Each house determines its own rules as to the manner of conducting business, the maintenance of order, and the punishment of members for mis-

behavior. Any member may be expelled by the house to which he belongs if two-thirds of that house concur or agree to his expulsion.

Journals and Yeas and Nays.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

The journal is a book containing accounts of the proceedings of each body. Both the Senate and the House must keep such a journal. The book is kept by the clerk, and the contents are published for the purpose of keeping citizens informed of the business of the government. These records serve for future reference. Some important parts may be omitted from the newspaper accounts. Sometimes, when a treaty is before the Senate, its contents are kept secret until it can be fully discussed and ratified. Again, in time of war, if any action should be taken by Congress in regard to movements of the army, it is important that this information be withheld from the public, as it would be valuable to the enemy.

Methods of Voting.—A vote may be taken in various ways:

1. By yeas and nays.
2. By ballot.
3. *Viva voce.*
4. By sides or tellers.

Yea and Nay.—The name of every member is called separately. If he favor the measure, he says "Yea" or "Yes," and if he oppose it, he says "Nay" or "No." After all names are called the entire list is reread by the

clerk, and mistakes in the recording of votes, if any, are corrected. The question is decided from the number of votes on each side.

The benefits of this method of voting are apparent. The manner in which each member voted is entered on the journal, showing to all how each man voted upon a certain question. The journal also gives the names of the members recorded as absent. Some men are absent purposely, so that they need not vote on certain questions. The public can secure all the names and the manner in which each member voted. This affords the people an opportunity to see how their Representatives are attending to their duties.

The main objection to this method of voting is that it requires too much time. In the House, think how long it would take to read and reread three hundred and eighty-six names!

By Ballot.—A ballot is a small piece of paper containing the vote of a member. The ballots are collected, opened, and counted. After the count the result is made known. Voting by yeas and nays and by ballot are both accurate ways of voting. The latter method is particularly good in cases where secrecy is required. By using the ballot no one knows how another has voted.

Viva Voce.—This means deciding by the voice. This method is used only in unimportant questions, as it is not entirely accurate. The presiding officer calls out, "All those in favor say 'Aye.'" All those in favor respond "Aye." "The officer then says, "All those opposed say 'No.'" All those on this side say "No." The presiding officer then decides from the sound the opinion of the body. The side

which seemed to make the greater sound is given the decision. The great benefit of this method is that in a few minutes the opinion of any large body may be ascertained. It is very inaccurate, however, especially when the members are evenly divided on a question. When those on one side greatly outnumber those on the other, it is just as accurate as any of the other ways of voting.

By Sides or Tellers.—All the members favoring a measure form in a line on one side of the room, and all those who are opposed to it stand on the other side. The presiding officer appoints a teller for each side. Each teller counts the number of men as the line passes by him. This method takes as long as the yea and nay and ballot methods; it also tends to create much disorder in the rising and moving about of the members.

Adjournment.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Adjournment of Congress.—To adjourn means to suspend business for a time. It is not necessary for Congress to be in session every day of the year, so frequent vacations are taken, which are called adjournments. As both houses are necessary to do any important business, neither can adjourn for more than three days without the consent of the other. One house might be opposed to a bill which the other house favored, and to defeat this bill the former might easily adjourn for several weeks or months, but this clause of the Constitution prevents such action.

To save time and trouble, both houses must meet in the same city. Suppose the Senate met in Washington and the

House in Boston, all bills passed by one house would have to be carried or mailed to the other. This would cause much inconvenience and delay. All the government offices are located in the Capital, and all members can easily obtain all the information they desire on different subjects pertaining to the government.

Compensation, Privileges, and Incapacities of Members.

Sec. VI. 1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Compensation of Congressmen.—Under the Articles of Confederation the members of the Continental Congress received their pay from their respective States. Each State having power to fix the compensation, it frequently happened that different salaries were paid for the same work. Under the Constitution, although the Congressmen represent the people and the States, they are to be paid their salaries by the United States from the public Treasury. This makes uniformity, and hence all members of Congress should give proper care to their business in order to promote the interests of their States.

Congressmen were once paid about six dollars per day. In 1907, however, a yearly allowance of seven thousand five hundred dollars was made for each Senator and Representative. The Vice-President, Speaker, and president *pro tempore*, when there is no Vice-President, in consideration of their extra duties, receive twelve thousand dollars.

In addition to his salary, each member of Congress is allowed the cost of travelling to and from his home. This allowance is called mileage.

Freedom from Arrest.—To secure perfect freedom in speaking, and to make every member fearless in the performance of his duty, no member can be arrested while attending to his duties in Congress. There are some exceptions to this, however. A member who has committed any serious crime, such as treason or felony, may be arrested and punished. The reason for this part of the clause is apparent. Mr. Brown, a Representative, may know of some wrong-doing in the House. It is his purpose to bring the guilty persons to justice. The offenders might know of Mr. Brown's purpose, and to protect themselves might have him arrested on some very trifling charge. Brown, being arrested, could not make his accusations. The people whom he represents are deprived of their rights of representation in the making of laws, and justice is not meted out to the offenders.

Exclusion from Office.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

Disabilities of Congressmen.—There are two classes of officers under our government,—civil and military.

A civil officer is one who helps to carry on the work of the government. A military officer is one in the army or

navy. Officers of the military class do not conduct any business in the government.

Emoluments simply means compensation.

A member of Congress might have a bill passed creating a new office with a large salary attached, with the understanding that he would be appointed to that office. This is so unjust that the Constitution forbids it.

This being a government of the people, it is entirely right that a person who holds one public office should not be a member of Congress. The clause forbids a member of Congress from holding two offices of profit.

Revenue Bills to originate in the House.

Sec. VII. 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Bills of Revenue.—A bill is a proposed law. A law is a bill which has received the consent of Congress and the President. A law governs the land, and must be obeyed; a bill applies to no one.

A large sum of money is needed every day to carry on the government, to pay the President, Congressmen, ambassadors, consuls, etc. This money is secured by laying and collecting taxes or revenue. Revenue is the money which the government collects from the people for paying the debt incurred in conducting it.

One of the principal causes of the Revolutionary War was the taxing of the people without their consent. People, when they have a voice in the government, are generally interested in taxation, hence the makers of the Constitution, having the Revolution in mind, said that all bills for raising revenue should originate in the House of Representatives, as that body directly represented the peo-

ple. Again, they said that if the people were dissatisfied with a certain revenue bill, they would be compelled to wait but two years, when they could elect new representatives to frame a bill that would be acceptable. If this power were delegated to the Senate that body might lay a heavy tax which could hardly be changed for six years.

A bill which provides for the raising of funds by taxation is known as a revenue bill. Revenue bills must begin or originate in the House of Representatives. The Senate, however, may propose amendments.

Manner of passing Bills, etc.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Modes of passing Bills.—First Method.—Any bill, excepting one of revenue, may be introduced in either the Senate or the House of Representatives. If it is passed by a majority in each house and signed by the President it becomes a law of the country.

Second Method.—If the President does not approve the bill he refuses to sign it, writes his reasons for disapproval, and returns it to the body where it originated. His objections are recorded in the journal, after which the house reconsiders the bill. If two-thirds of the members present, provided there be a quorum, agree to pass the bill a second time, it is sent to the other house. If that body also agree to pass it, a two-thirds vote being necessary to do so, it then becomes a law without the signature of the President.

Veto.—When the President does not sign a bill, he is said to veto it. Veto means "I forbid." When a bill becomes a law by the second method, it is said to have been passed over the President's veto.

From 1865 to 1869 President Johnson vetoed many of the bills passed by Congress, but nearly all of them received the necessary two-thirds vote and became laws. When a bill becomes a law in this manner, although the President does not approve it, he is compelled to enforce and obey it.

The power to veto a bill is a very important one. It is intended as a check on ill-advised, useless, and vicious legislation. When the President and Congress are in harmony and the veto power is exercised judiciously, very few bills are passed over the veto. The fact that the President possesses such power has no doubt led legislators to exercise great care in shaping bills, for, as before stated, a bill may be passed by a bare majority when it receives the approval of the President. Without such approval, a two-thirds vote is required.

Third Method.—After a bill is passed by both Houses it is forwarded to the President for his consideration. He does not sign it nor does he return it with his veto. In

accordance with the Constitution, he must either sign or veto it within ten days after he has received it, or it becomes a law just as if he had signed it. The President is not supposed to work on Sundays, so that Sundays are not included in the ten days. The clause means ten week or working days.

At the end of a session Congress adjourns, and frequently leaves many bills in the hands of the President for his approval or disapproval. Those which he signs become laws. Congress not being in session, he cannot return the other bills; so that, in case of adjournment, bills kept over ten days do not become laws because they cannot be returned. This method of holding bills by the President so that the time for adjournment happens between the time he receives the bill and the expiration of the ten days has been termed the "Pocket Veto Method." It was used to a great extent by President Jackson.

After a bill becomes a law it is sent to the Secretary of State, who preserves it.

Law-Making Methods . .

- I.
  1. Passed by a majority of both houses.
  2. Signed by the President.
- II.
  1. Passed by a majority of both houses.
  2. Vetoed by the President.
  3. Repassed over President's veto by two-thirds of both houses.
- III.
  1. Passed by a majority of both houses.
  2. Not signed or returned by the President in ten days, except when Congress adjourns before the ten days expire.

Constitutional Laws.—When a nation begins a new government the manner in which it is to be conducted is set forth in a body of laws. These laws are all made at one

time and all go into effect at the same time. They form what is known as the Constitution of a nation, and must be obeyed as well as any other law. Any part of the Constitution is really a law, and to distinguish it from others it is called the Constitutional Law.

Our Constitutional Laws were made in 1787 and became effective in 1789. Since that time but fifteen changes have been made.

Constitutional Laws.

1. Consist of many laws adopted in a body as a whole.
2. All go into effect simultaneously.
3. They are few in number in comparison with Statute Laws.
4. They are seldom changed.

Statute Laws.—Congress is given power by the Constitution to make laws on various subjects. These laws are known as Statute Laws. As each Congress makes many during its sessions it will be apparent that the entire number of Statute Laws is very large.

A Statute Law made to meet a certain condition in one year may not meet another somewhat similar condition in ten or twenty years to come. Therefore the old Statute Law should be so changed as to meet the contingency. In 1820 a Statute Law called the Missouri Compromise was enacted. This provided for the admission of Missouri into the Union as a slave State, and also for the prohibition, in future times, of slavery in all States which were to be made from the territory west of the Mississippi River and north of the southern boundary of Missouri. This was a law of the land. It applied to every one when it was made; but, being a Statute Law, it could be changed at any time.

In 1854 two Territories, Kansas and Nebraska, asked to be admitted into the Union. As both of these are situated

north of the southern boundary of Missouri and west of the Mississippi River there should have been no question as to whether they should come into the Union as slave or free States. But the Statute Law of 1820 seemed no longer to apply, so a new one was made, which gave the people of the two Territories concerned the right to decide for themselves this vexed question.

Although the Constitution enumerates the various subjects upon which laws may be made by Congress, it sometimes happens that one passes through the law-making stages upon a subject which is not altogether within the province of Congress. In such a case the doubt must be settled by the Supreme Court of the United States, whose duty it is to explain the Constitution and laws. If the court decides that the law carries out a power of the Constitution it is said to be Constitutional; if a negative decision is given the law is said to be Unconstitutional.

Statute Laws.

1. They are many in number.
2. They have been made from 1789 to the present time.
3. If not in accordance with the Constitution of the United States they are invalid.

Concurrent Orders, Resolutions, etc., to be passed on by the President.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment), shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Orders, Resolutions, and Votes.—This clause prevents Congress from passing an important bill under some other

name so that it need not go to the President for his approval. A Senator wishes to have some important bill passed, but he knows that the President is opposed to it, and if sent to him he would veto it and thereby defeat it. So, instead of calling it a bill, he names it a resolution. This resolution, if it were not for this clause, could become a law. The object of this clause is also to extend the veto power of the President to other matters and to prevent Congress from trying to make laws without the consent of the President. The veto power of the President is of great importance if properly used. Its purpose is to sift the good bills from the bad ones, thus causing good and efficient laws to be made for the country.

From this clause we see that no order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of both houses is necessary can be passed without taking the same course as a bill. There is only one exception to this, and that is upon the question of adjournment. Both houses may decide this by a resolution to which the signature of the President is not necessary.

SUMMARY.

1. The first clause of the Constitution is known as the preamble. It mentions the reasons for the adoption of the Constitution.

2. There are two houses in the law-making department of the government. The Senate is smaller in membership than the House of Representatives. The former represents the States, while the latter represents the people.

3. A Senator must be thirty years of age, nine years a citizen of the United States, and, when elected, must live in the State which he represents. A Representative must be twenty-five years of age, seven years a citizen of the United States, and must live, when elected, in the State electing him.

4. Vacancies in the Senate are filled by the Legislature of a State when it is in session and by the Governor when it has adjourned. A

vacancy in the House is filled by a special election called by the Governor of the State in which the vacancy occurs.

5. Each house has a presiding officer. He is the Vice-President or president *pro tempore* in the Senate. In the House he is the Speaker.

6. In impeachment cases the House brings the charge and the Senate tries the person. The punishment of an impeached person, if found guilty, is removal from office and disqualification to hold any office under the United States government. There may also be a punishment imposed by a court of law.

7. Congress holds at least one session every year. This session always begins on the first Monday in December.

8. A majority of the membership of each house constitutes a quorum. When this number is not present no business can be transacted.

9. The proceedings of each body are kept in a book provided for the purpose. This book is known as the journal.

10. To adjourn, both houses must agree to the time.

11. All bills for raising revenue must begin in the House of Representatives, because this body is the one which directly represents the people. Bills of other kinds may originate in either house.

12. That a bill may become a law it is necessary: (*a*) That it receive a majority in each house and then be signed by the President; (*b*) That it receive a two-thirds vote in each house without being signed by the President; (*c*) That it be passed by a majority of both houses and be kept by the President ten days without being signed or returned.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by a preamble?

2. Name the objects to be attained by the adoption of the Constitution.

3. Name the main divisions of the national government.

4. Name the divisions of the State government which correspond to these.

5. What is the name given to the Legislative Department in the nation? In the State? Of what parts does it consist in each?

6. How and for how long are national Representatives chosen?

7. How and for what term are State Representatives chosen?

8. Enumerate the qualifications of Representatives in the United States and in your own State.

9. Census: (*a*) Who takes it? (*b*) Is it compulsory on Congress or not? (*c*) Of what use is it? (*d*) Explain the method in force in 1790.

10. North Carolina has a population of 1,617,947 and Delaware 168,493. Fix the number of Representatives to which each is entitled according to the ratio of 1890.

11. What is meant by a Congressional district?

12. What is meant by a State Representative district?

13. State the various ways by which a vacancy is occasioned.

14. In what manner are vacancies filled in the lower house at Washington and in the lower house of your State Legislature?

15. About the Senate, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) How it is composed; (*c*) What the term of office is; (*d*) How vacancies are filled; (*e*) The qualifications of its members.

16. In reference to your State Senate, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) Its composition; (*c*) The length of the term of office; (*d*) The manner in which vacancies are filled; (*e*) The qualifications necessary to become a member.

17. Impeachment: (*a*) Define it. (*b*) Who brings the charge and what vote is required? (*c*) Who takes the next step and what vote is required? (*d*) What is the punishment by the Senate? (*e*) What other punishment may be inflicted? (*f*) What is the object of this procedure?

18. Explain the purpose of the division of Senators into classes.

19. Make an outline. Call it Law-Making in the Nation and State. Place in it: (*a*) The name of the body in each; (*b*) The names of the parts in each; (*c*) The meeting place; (*d*) How the members are elected; (*e*) The qualifications of the members; (*f*) The number of members; (*g*) The manner in which vacancies are filled.

20. In Congress: (*a*) Who is the presiding officer of the House? (*b*) Does he have a vote on all occasions? Why? (*c*) Who acts when he is not present? (*d*) Who is the presiding officer of the Senate? (*e*) When does he vote? (*f*) Why is this right? (*g*) Who acts when

he is not in attendance? (*h*) Who acts when the President of the United States is on trial for impeachment?

21. Describe briefly the power of Congress and the State Legislature over elections for Senators and Representatives.

22. What provision is made by the Constitution for the meeting of Congress?

23. What does your State constitution say about the assembling of the Legislature?

24. How may a member of the Senate or of the House of Representatives be expelled from either body?

25. Explain impeachment, quorum, yeas and nays.

26. What does the Constitution say about the adjournment of Congress?

27. Tell fully what a revenue bill is.

28. Explain all the ways in which a bill may become a law.

29. Define: (*a*) Constitutional Law; (*b*) Statute Laws.

30. How may orders, resolutions, and votes become binding on the citizens?

31. Explain bill, law, veto, journal, elector.

CHAPTER IX.

POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS.

General Powers of Congress—Taxes, Duties, Imposts, Uniformity.

Sec. VIII. The Congress shall have power:

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.

Powers of Congress.—This clause and the following seventeen tell exactly what Congress has the right to do. It was thought advisable to place in the Constitution the different subjects upon which Congress could make laws, so that the States and the general government should not be continually disputing each other's rights. Each clause specifies some different power. This enables Congress to know what laws to make and how far its power extends. This reduces the number of disputes which might arise if these powers were not specified.

To establish a uniform system throughout the country it is necessary that Congress should have these powers. To illustrate, take the postal service. Congress at the present time has the right to conduct the postal service. Suppose this power were not mentioned in the Constitution, and several States should go into the postal business in order to make money, New York might charge three cents, Ohio four cents, and Delaware five cents for the delivery of a letter. It might take New York two days to deliver a letter, Ohio three days, and Delaware five days. This difference would cause great inconvenience and annoyance to tradesmen and might possibly cause great injury to their

business. The United States government having charge of all postal business, all persons pay the same rate of postage and secure the same promptness in the delivery of their mail. The States could not render this service.

Congress has power to make laws on all national matters which are for the common good. The States, having different conditions of race, climate, and soil, and knowing best what laws are suited for their varied conditions, make their own laws.

Taxation.—It requires many millions of dollars every year to conduct the government. This money is obtained by taxation. The Constitution gives Congress power to impose upon the people a charge for the maintenance of the government. A tax is a sum of money demanded by the government for its support.

The power to tax people has existed everywhere and from the earliest times. In absolute monarchies people pay the tax without having a voice in saying how much it shall be. The main cause of the Revolutionary War was the laying of taxes without the consent of the people. All nations of the world in which the people are represented in the imposing of taxes are more contented than those in which they have no representation. Had it not been for Great Britain's foolish attempt in 1774 this country, without any doubt, would still be a British colony. England seems to have learned and profited by experience, for at the present time all of her colonies have taxation with representation. As a result of this she has comparatively little trouble with her colonies, and all are happy. Canada, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, India, and Australia are English possessions. Spain, on the other hand, has practised the reverse. Heavy taxes have been imposed on all of her

colonies. At different times, for many years, her dependencies have been in rebellion. As a consequence of the late rebellion in Cuba, Spain has lost not only that colony but also, in addition, Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands. The last two are now possessions of the United States.

Under the Articles of Confederation Congress had the power to levy taxes but could not compel any one to pay them; consequently, little money was received, thus causing the nation to be in a bad financial condition. When the Constitution was framed this evil was remedied by giving Congress the power to compel the payment of taxes.

Kinds of Taxes.—There are two kinds of taxes, according to the manner in which they are laid,—namely:

1. Direct.
2. Indirect.

Direct taxes are those laid directly on the people. A tax paid for voting, called a poll tax, and a tax upon property or land are good examples of this kind of tax. The first direct tax was levied in 1798 upon houses, slaves, and land.

Direct taxes are levied by the government only in times of great need, such as in time of war, when much money is required. Only about six times has this power to lay direct taxes been exercised in our country. In 1861 it was used to defray the heavy expenses incurred by the Civil War.

Like the apportionment of Representatives, direct taxes must be laid according to population. The object of this is to prevent Congress from making citizens of one State pay more towards the support of the government than those in another State. Each person enjoys the benefit of the government, and every one should bear his proportion of

the expense in conducting it. If Congress needed forty-five million dollars and proposed raising this sum by a direct tax, asking one million dollars from each State, great dissatisfaction would prevail. This method would be very unjust.

State.	People.	Tax.	Tax on each Person.
New York	5,500,000	$1,000,000	$0.20
Delaware	170,000	1,000,000	6.00 (about)

We see by this table that a citizen of Delaware would pay about six dollars towards the support of the government, while a citizen of New York would pay but twenty cents. This is so unfair that such a method of taxation is forbidden by the Constitution; the tax must be laid according to the population. If Congress wishes to raise sixty-five million dollars and there are sixty-five million people in the United States, each one would pay as his share one dollar.

State.	Number of People.	Tax on each Person.	Share of Tax.
New York	5,500,000	$1.00	$5,500,000
Delaware	170,000	1.00	170,000

Indirect Taxes.—An indirect tax is one that every person is not compelled to pay. This tax is laid on goods brought into a country or those made within it. Indirect taxes are more agreeable to the people because the charges are small, and people, when buying the goods, are generally unconscious of the fact that they are paying a tax.

Difference of Terms.—There is little difference in the meaning of the words taxes, duties, imposts, and excises. They all mean the giving of something by the people to the government for its maintenance. Duties refer to taxes on goods imported. Excises are taxes on goods made within a country.

Duties.—There are three classes of duties,—viz.:

1. Specific.
2. Ad valorem.
3. Compound.

A specific duty is a tax laid according to quantity, weight, or measure; as, two cents a pound on sugar, eight cents a yard on lace, twenty-five cents a gallon on olive oil.

An ad valorem duty is a tax laid according to the value of the goods; as, five per cent., or five cents on each dollar's worth of silk, fifteen per cent. on diamonds.

A compound duty is a combination of the specific and ad valorem duties. A man imports fifty pounds of tobacco, worth fifty cents a pound. He is compelled to pay a tax on the quantity, say five cents a pound, or two dollars and fifty cents. He is also compelled to pay a tax on the value of the tobacco, say ten per cent., or two dollars and fifty cents. The specific duty at five cents a pound is two dollars and fifty cents, and the ad valorem duty of ten per cent. is two dollars and fifty cents. He would, therefore, have to pay the government five dollars. This is an example of a compound duty.

Tariff.—Thousands of articles are imported into the United States; for each of these a different tax must be laid. These taxes taken together form what is called the

tariff of a country. This word tariff has an interesting history. About a century ago, there dwelt at the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea a band of pirates. The strait at this point being very narrow, every ship passing was boarded by the pirates, who compelled the captain of the ship to give a sum of money or a part of the cargo for permission to pass on. The name of the place or town, which is near the Strait of Gibraltar, is Tarifa. From this town of Tarifa our present word "tariff" is derived.

Excises are taxes on goods made in a country. At the present time, there is only an excise tax, known as internal revenue, laid on tobacco and alcoholic liquors, because they are not considered as necessities of life.

Direct taxes must be laid according to population; indirect taxes must be the same or uniform throughout the United States. Goods brought from London to Boston must pay the same tax as if brought to Philadelphia. If the government should say the tax is five cents at Boston and ten cents at Philadelphia, all vessels would enter Boston and thus save the difference between the taxes. The failure to make taxation uniform would give one city an advantage over another.

- **Taxes.**
  - 1. Direct—seldom laid—according to census . . .
    - 1. Income tax.
    - 2. Tax on real estate.
    - 3. Tax on personal property.
  - 2. Indirect—always laid—must be uniform . . .
    - Duties . .
      - 1. Specific—quantity.
      - 2. Ad valorem—value.
      - 3. Compound—quantity and value.
    - Internal Revenue.
      - Tobacco.
      - Alcohol.

All duties are payable at the custom-houses. These are branches of the Treasury Department of the United States. Money thus obtained is used:

1. To pay the debts of the United States.
2. To provide for common defence.
3. To provide for the general welfare of the country.

Troubles caused by Taxation.—At the beginning of the government great sums of money were needed. Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury under Washington, was the first to recommend measures for taxing the people in order to maintain the government and pay the debts contracted during and after the Revolutionary War. His scheme is known as "Hamilton's Funding System." It provided for four things,—namely:

1. To pay the running expenses of the government.
2. To pay France and other countries the money loaned to the United States during the Revolution.
3. To pay the soldiers who took part in the Revolution and those in our country who had loaned the government money during that period.
4. To pay the debts which the States had contracted with their own citizens during the war. This has been termed the "Assumption of State Debts."

Whiskey and other alcoholic drinks were much in use at the time of Washington's administration, and as they were not considered necessities of life a tax was laid on them. In 1794, in Western Pennsylvania, where this product was extensively manufactured from corn, the people refused to pay the tax and started an insurrection. Washington, however, ordered out the militia of Pennsylvania, New Jersey,

Maryland, and Virginia. In a short time quiet was restored without bloodshed.

Nullification.—In John Quincy Adams's administration a high tariff was laid, called the "American System." Its object was to keep foreign goods out of this country by placing a high tax upon them and thus protect the home manufacturers. The North had all the factories. It thus received all the benefit of the tariff, while the South, being agricultural in its pursuits, did not receive any benefit, and since it bought most of its goods from England, it really had to pay the increased taxes. The South, therefore, opposed this method of taxation. In 1833 South Carolina refused to pay the tax upon imported goods, saying that the law which imposed such a tax was "null and void." This action of the State of South Carolina in declaring a law passed by Congress null and void has been termed "nullification." Nullification means the refusal of a State to obey a law of Congress.

President Jackson sent an armed force to Charleston to see that the taxes upon imported goods were paid. The people of South Carolina paid the taxes reluctantly. The opposition, however, caused a change in the tariff. Henry Clay had a compromise tariff passed by Congress, which provided for the gradual reduction of the obnoxious tariff until a certain point was reached where it was to remain.

American System, or Protective Tariff.—This system of taxation not only helps to pay the expenses of the government but also protects home manufacturers. The object of this form of tariff is to compel the consumer to buy home manufactured goods or else pay a high price for the same article manufactured in a foreign land. This system reached its height in John Quincy Adams's administration.

It was set aside in Polk's administration and revived in Lincoln's administration. Some of the most important protective tariff bills have been the "McKinley Bill," passed in Harrison's administration, and the "Dingley Bill," passed in McKinley's administration.

Tariff for Revenue.—This is a system which simply takes into consideration the amount of money to be raised by taxation for the maintenance of the government. It does not protect home industries. The following are tariff for revenue bills:

1. "Mills Bill," passed during Cleveland's first administration.
2. "Wilson-Gorman Bill," passed during Cleveland's second administration.

The "Wilson-Gorman Bill" had some protective features in it. President Cleveland did not sign it, but permitted it to become a law by not returning it within the required time.

The Republicans of this country have advocated a protective tariff, while the Democrats have supported a tariff for revenue only.

Free trade is the admission of all foreign goods into a country free of duty.

Reciprocity is an agreement between two countries conferring equal privileges as regards the admission of imports.

Borrow Money.

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States.

Borrowing Money.—The tariff of the United States brings in sufficient money to carry on the government. The

object of this tariff is to make the expense of carrying on the government less burdensome to the people. In case of war or in time of great need sufficient money cannot be raised by the tariff alone. A higher tariff could be made, but to pass and put into operation a new tariff law would require so much time that the country might be placed in peril. To meet such a condition Congress has the power to borrow money in the name of the United States. Money may be borrowed at home and abroad. As a rule, however, our citizens have such faith in the government that all that is needed can be procured in our own country.

Money is generally raised in times of emergency by issuing bonds. A bond is a paper issued by the government, binding itself to pay a certain sum of money at a specified time, ten or twenty years, and also to pay a certain rate of interest. In 1898, as a result of the war with Spain, two hundred million dollars worth of bonds, bearing three per cent. interest, were issued. In a few months the entire amount was sold.

Regulation of Commerce.

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes.

Commerce.—The exchange of products and manufactures between different places or communities is called commerce. The exchange between people of two different countries is known as foreign commerce; that between people of different cities and States of a nation, domestic commerce.

The extent of the commerce of a country is an indication of its condition. President Cleveland said, "Commerce is the life-blood of a nation, and no country that loses or im-

poverishes it can long retain a commanding position among the nations of the world."

The Continental Congress had no power over commerce. Each State made such laws on this subject as seemed of special benefit to itself only. Pennsylvania might have forbidden the importation of certain articles from New Jersey, and most likely the latter State would have done the same with reference to the importation of articles from the former State. Such condition of affairs produced much controversy, which was finally remedied by the Constitution.

Commerce may be regulated by Congress with:

1. Foreign nations . . . . . Foreign commerce.
2. The States . . . . . Domestic commerce.
3. Indian tribes . . . . . Domestic commerce.

Comparatively little commerce is now carried on with the Indians. In the early days of the government, before the West was settled and while many red men remained, there was much exchange in furs. According to the last census, there are few Indians; consequently, their articles of exchange are inconsiderable.

Aids to Commerce.—Congress has helped the progress of commerce in many ways,—namely:

1. **By making Laws on the Subject of Fisheries; their Protection and Growth.** There is a certain department of the government, known as the Fish Commission, which annually sends out millions of fish to be placed in the rivers and streams of the country.

2. **By establishing a Life-Saving Service.** During the greater portion of the year men are stationed at the most dangerous parts of the coast. Continual watch is kept for ships in danger. Since the year 1871, when the service was inaugurated, many persons have been rescued and many millions of dollars worth of cargo have been saved.

3. By supplying Light-Houses and Buoys. Light-houses are placed in dangerous localities, so that at night a ship may know its location and at the same time its danger. Buoys are placed in all shallow places in rivers, bays, and gulfs to prevent vessels from grounding.

4. By surveying Coasts and Harbors. The coasts and harbors are all surveyed and the dangerous places marked by light-houses and buoys. After the survey of a harbor, maps are prepared and issued to captains of ships. These maps indicate the location of dangerous places. They prove of great assistance to captains in entering strange harbors.

5. By protecting Seamen. A Marine-Hospital Service has been established by Congress. The health of all officers and crews of American shipping is under its care. Under its control are hospitals where sick and disabled seamen may find a home, and where they receive medical attention.

6. By a Weather Bureau. This department telegraphs notice of approaching storms throughout the country, that vessels about to leave port may remain until danger is past, and thus avoid the risk of destruction of life and cargo.

7. By encouraging the Building of Railroads. Commerce is carried on in the country mostly by railroads; here Congress has also encouraged it in this manner:

1. By giving free of charge large tracts of land.
2. By having the cars equipped with safety appliances to protect trainmen.

Naturalization and Bankruptcy.

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States.

Process of Naturalization.—The process by which an alien becomes a citizen of the United States is called naturalization.

A foreigner is a person who travels or resides in a different country from that in which he was born.

An alien is a foreigner who does not enjoy any political

rights of the country in which he resides. An alien, by naturalization, becomes a citizen.

Persons born in the United States are citizens. This is set forth in the Fourteenth Amendment, which says, "All persons born in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside."

Laws relating to naturalization can only be made by Congress. The following law has been made by Congress on this subject:

1. An alien, after three years' residence, appears before any court having jurisdiction and makes a declaration of his intention of becoming a citizen. He then receives what are termed "his first papers."

2. Two years after this, making five years in all, he again appears in court and takes an oath of allegiance to his new government and renounces his allegiance to his old country. He is asked some questions on the government of the country, and if the judge think him a fit person for citizenship, naturalization papers are granted and the applicant becomes a citizen.

An alien, who has served in the American army or navy one year and has been honorably discharged, may become a citizen at the end of his year's service, provided that he be over twenty-one years of age.

Persons born in a foreign country of American parents are citizens of the United States. Such an individual is eligible to the office of President of the United States.

When an alien is naturalized all of his children, if living in this country and under twenty-one years of age, are made citizens at the same time without further trouble.

By the annexation of Hawaii and Porto Rico all the inhabitants of these islands will, in time, become citizens without the process of naturalization. When a Territory becomes

a State all the inhabitants become citizens of the United States without further procedure.

In all States, male citizens, provided they have certain other qualifications, are allowed to vote. In a few States, notably those of the West, women citizens are granted the right of suffrage. Children are not permitted to vote in any State.

Immigration.—In a little over a century the population of this country has increased over sixty millions. The cause of this was the immense number of people who came from other lands. A person who moves from one country to another is called an emigrant of the country which he leaves, and an immigrant of the one which he enters. Emigration means the act of leaving a country; immigration, the act of entering a country.

The early arrivals were earnest men of strong character who left home because of religious oppression, and who came to make a home for themselves and families in the new country. They possessed a strong desire for liberty. Their descendants were the sturdy men who resisted England and made a nation of the thirteen colonies. Such immigrants are always desirable, and no laws should be made which will ever keep from them the benefits of residence among us.

In later years, few of the best men of other lands have come to our shores. Those who are satisfied with their mother country generally remain there, while those who are dissatisfied—namely, criminals and those wishing to escape military service—come to our country. There has been, however, a small number of very desirable arrivals, whose object is to better their condition, and who are energetic and honest.

The most undesirable class of immigrants are the Chinese. Their immigration began about 1880. The object of their coming to America was not to stay or to associate with the other races, but to make sufficient money in a few years to return and live at ease in their mother country. Besides their isolation, they possess certain disagreeable habits. They use opium to a marvellous extent. The main objection to them was urged by the people of California. It was claimed, and rightly so, that they displaced many American citizens by agreeing to perform the same labor for much less wages. It was also apparent that they never intended to become, and that they would never make the right kind of, citizens. In Cleveland's administration (1885–1889), a law was made prohibiting any more from landing. It is claimed that there are people who come from other lands who are as undesirable as the Chinese. This is true, but we have solved the Chinese question, and probably this solution will aid us in debarring other undesirable immigrants. Laws prohibiting the immigration of improper persons should be passed and firmly carried out.

It is the duty of the government to enact laws that will keep out of our country those whose influence would be harmful. Anarchists, whose wish it is to arouse discontent; criminals, who have no respect for the law; paupers, who are apt to become public charges; and those of a weak or immoral nature, who are apt to contaminate others, should all be denied admission into our country. We can have no law too strict on the question of immigration.

This is a very important question, and one of vital interest to our nation. If we permit the elements of weakness to enter into the structure of our nation it will fall just as others have fallen. When you study the history of Rome you will see why that country, once the mistress of

the world, tottered and fell. You will notice that so long as Roman citizenship was confined to Romans only, that nation prospered in all its battles, because they were fought solely by Romans. But when outside nations were conquered and the defeated people permitted to enter into Roman citizenship, then Rome began to lose her prestige. The battles were no longer fought by Romans but by aliens who did not possess the Roman valor. Battle after battle was lost, each diminishing the territory and power of Rome, until finally there was nothing left but a weak, indifferent people. This happened to a nation which at one time governed the world. It happened because that nation did not grant citizenship to the kind of people who would be proud of such an honor. We think our nation is strong, but carelessness in the granting of admission into our country and the right of citizenship will cause our downfall just as it did Rome's.

We welcome to our shores those people who can appreciate the honor of American citizenship and who are willing to learn our language, laws, and customs. As it once was said of the Roman, let it be said of us, "To be an American is an honor."

Higher Standard of Naturalization.—In those countries where the representatives of the people carry on the government there is always present a serious danger. Office-holders will not perform the work intrusted to them to the best of their abilities. Incompetent and dishonest men often get control of an office; they perform the duties in such a manner as to benefit themselves. Despite the harm done, it is a difficult matter to elect a better man. The same principle that holds in business should apply to the government: it should be conducted for the best interests of all concerned.

Able men could fill such places, but they are seldom selected. The fault is with the voters. It seems that the greater number vote for any candidate without carefully looking into the qualifications of the man. The ignorant voters outnumber the intelligent. The former are used by the politicians for their dishonest purposes. No well-informed person doubts that the elections are made impure and false by the immense number of illiterate and degraded persons. It is a parody on education to give an ignorant man one vote and no more to the highly developed citizen. Small wonder intelligent persons stay away from the polls when they know that their ballots are neutralized by persons who cannot be compared to them in knowledge and character! To blame the ignorant is not unjust, when most of the frauds are known to occur in the districts in which they live.

The United States courts could be a power in bringing about a reform. They alone have the right to naturalize. Too often foreigners without qualification are admitted to citizenship. Instead of requiring some severe test, the mere fact of five years' residence is taken. Our judges cannot be too careful in the granting of naturalization papers. None but those who know how to read and write our language should be admitted to citizenship. Nor is an educational test too severe. A knowledge of history and geography should also be required. When a man who has been born and educated here finds that an illiterate foreigner has as much power in the government as he has, he becomes disgusted. This unequal citizenship should not exist. There are many native-born citizens to whom this test should also be applied. Where the person could show that he has attended school to the age of fourteen or sixteen the law could be set aside. This question is more serious than most people think, aiming as it does at the very life of

the government. Unless republics are well managed they are more sure to fall than monarchies. "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty."

Bankruptcy.—When a person owes more than he can pay he is in debt, and we call him a bankrupt. In colonial days people were very strict in this matter. Any one not being able to pay his accounts was cast into prison until some of his friends should come forward and discharge the debt for him.

It will be easily seen that this was a bad plan. All men who fail in business are not dishonest, and if such a person is placed in prison he is disgraced and he can hardly elevate himself. On the other hand, an honest man might fail in business because of bad plans and inefficient employees. This man, if he had another chance, might probably prosper, and then be able to pay all of his back debts.

A man who finds himself unable to meet his obligations and desires to start in business anew goes before a court and has himself adjudged a bankrupt. This releases him from paying any debts which he is unable to meet and protects him in future times from losing any money or property acquired since he was declared a bankrupt.

One failing in business should turn over all his property to his creditors. This may only be worth a small part of his debts, but at any future time he is not bound by law, but by honor, to pay his entire debt. After relinquishing all his property, he can no longer be held for the same debt.

Mr. Allen has a large business. At the end of a year his expenses are found to be seventy-five thousand dollars and his receipts but ten thousand dollars. Seeing that he is so far behind, he applies to the court, who declares him a bankrupt. The ten thousand dollars and his property valued at fifteen

thousand dollars are turned over to the creditors. The fifty thousand dollars is a loss to the creditors unless Mr. Allen amasses another fortune and is willing to pay his legally cancelled debts.

The present national bankruptcy law was passed in 1898. We had, previous to that time, three such laws, all of which were repealed. The first, made in 1800, was repealed in 1803; the second, made in 1841, was repealed in 1843; and the third, made in 1867, was repealed in 1878. Some States have passed insolvent laws for the benefit of men who fail in business.

Money, Weights, and Measures.

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures.

Money.—There are two kinds of money,—viz.:

1. Coin.
2. Paper.

To have the money in different parts of the country alike, Congress alone has the power to coin it. Coinage is the making of money. Coin money is made at the mints. Paper money is made at the Bureau of Engraving at Washington. Mints have been established at Philadelphia, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Denver. All coins, excepting those struck at the Philadelphia mint, bear mint marks. Coins struck at the mint in San Francisco bear the letter "S," those struck at the mint in Denver, "D," and those struck at New Orleans, "O." The mint in Philadelphia was established first and the coins struck there are recognized by the absence of any distinguishing marks.

The present system of decimal coinage was the work of Thomas Jefferson. In 1784 he submitted a report to the

Second Continental Congress, which was adopted in 1785, providing for four coins as follows:

1. A gold piece	value,	\$10.00 = eagle.
2. A silver piece	value,	1.00 = dollar.
3. A silver piece	value, $\frac{1}{10}$ of	1.00 = dime.
4. A bronze piece	value, $\frac{1}{100}$ of	1.00 = cent.

Coin money contains some metal which has value in itself. There is always a certain percentage of the metal used in making a coin which has nothing to do with the value of the coin, but is simply there to preserve it. The various metals used in coining silver and gold are termed alloys. If coins were simply made of pure gold or silver they would not be so durable. When these metals are used in connection with an alloy the coin is harder, and lasts for years. If a ten dollar gold piece were melted we should still be able to obtain ten dollars for the gold. Gold and silver coins consist of nine parts of pure metal and one part alloy. The alloy of silver coins is pure copper. The alloy of gold coins consists of two metals,—viz., silver and copper, the latter metal not exceeding one-tenth of the alloy. The nickel coins contain one part of nickel to three parts of copper. The bronze coins consist of ninety-five parts of copper to five parts of zinc and tin.

Gold coins are a legal tender for any amount of debt. Silver coins that are made at the present time are legal tender for any amount not exceeding five dollars in any single payment. Nickel and bronze coins are legal tender for amounts not exceeding twenty-five cents in any single payment.

Paper money is only a convenience, and the paper of which it is made has no value. Paper money is only taken by the people because it will be exchanged for coin by the government. This money consists of notes, termed gold and silver notes. If you examine a dollar note you will

find on one side of it a statement to this effect: "This certifies that there has been deposited in the Treasury of the United States one silver dollar." Each note issued by the United States Treasury contains a similar statement as to the amount of gold or silver deposited at Washington. It is this statement on paper money that makes it acceptable to the people. If they knew they could not obtain gold or silver for the paper money they would not want it. It may be well to know that this paper money does not represent coined silver or gold, but uncoined. It is the silver and gold in their pure state. In this condition they are called bullion gold and bullion silver. People are not afraid to take these notes in payment for a debt. They have great faith in their government. They know, too, that when it promises to do anything it does it. There are other kinds of notes or paper money in our country. These are called bank notes, and are issued by banks when they possess government bonds. Such a note contains this statement: "This note is secured by bonds of the United States deposited with the United States Treasurer at Washington." When you become older and learn our banking system you will understand how these notes are issued. It is always well that the amount of coin money should exceed the amount of paper money.

During the Revolutionary War Congress issued Continental currency in such large quantities that it was worthless. The notes issued at that time were not secured by gold and silver. The people knew that paper money without gold or silver to back it was worthless. The consequence was that the people were afraid to take it. It depreciated to an alarming extent, and the value of commodities became enhanced.

So much paper money was issued during the Civil War

that one dollar in paper was worth but thirty-three cents in coin. The result of this was that in a few years all the coin disappeared and only paper was used. The notes issued by the government at this time were called "greenbacks," because the backs of the notes were printed in green ink. Business for many years was paralyzed. Finally, in 1879, Congress authorized the Treasurer of the United States to say that all paper money would be taken and specie, or coin, given for it at the Treasury. This was termed the "Resumption of Specie Payment." It had the effect of improving the business of the country.

Congress has the power of fixing the value of foreign coins, and it has done so.

Country.	Name of Coin.	Value in United States.
England	Sovereign, or Pound.	$4.86
France	Franc.	.193
Germany	Mark.	.238
Japan	Yen.	.997

Merchants of this country carry on commerce with all parts of the world. When a merchant wishes to buy tea in Japan the price is quoted in that country's money. He must know the value of Japanese money in order to decide whether the price is suitable for him to buy or not. The value of foreign money is fixed by Congress as a convenience to merchants who buy in foreign countries and to travellers who journey in foreign lands.

Weights and Measures.—America being settled mostly by Englishmen, many of the English customs were brought over by them. Among these was the system of weighing

and measuring in vogue in England. No attempt has been made to alter these, although Congress has the power to do so. At the present time these systems are so firmly intrenched as the result of several centuries of use that to change them would cause an upheaval in the business world. Two such important nations as England and the United States possessing the same standard of weighing and measuring simplifies commerce to a great degree.

There is another system of weights and measures in use in nearly all countries except England and the United States. It is called the Metric System, and, like our system of money, is based on decimals. It is also in general use by scientific men of this country. Some Americans have advocated its adoption in order to do away with the troublesome and hard English tables. Congress, however, has simply authorized the use of the metric system, but has never insisted upon its compulsory application. The advantages claimed for this system are:

1. The facility with which it can be learned.
2. Its use by many nations makes it more universal than the English system.
3. It simplifies operations in arithmetic.

Counterfeiting.

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States.

Counterfeiting is a serious crime. It consists in the making of money by unauthorized persons. A person who makes coin or paper money, unless employed by the government to do so, is guilty of that crime, and, if detected, may be fined and imprisoned.

The object of counterfeiters of coin is to make money with little precious metal in it and then to pass it for good

money, thus defrauding the people and enriching themselves. A law against counterfeiting the securities and coin of the United States was passed by Congress in 1864. This law provides a penalty of a maximum fine of five thousand dollars and imprisonment for a period not exceeding ten years. Foreign coin and securities are protected by the counterfeit laws of our country. If Congress had not the power to punish counterfeiters, the good money would disappear, people would be afraid to accept or change money, and business would be paralyzed.

Securities are paper money or government bonds.

Current coin is that which is circulating or in use.

The money of a country changes from time to time. There were at one time a half-cent and a two-cent coin, also a three-cent, a five-cent, and a twenty-cent piece of silver; but these have been withdrawn, and are no longer current. There would be no gain to any one to counterfeit coin which is not current, as no one would accept it.

Post-Offices.

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads.

Post-Offices.—The place where mail matter is received and arranged for delivery is a post-office.

A post-road is a route over which the mail is carried. Before railroads and steamships came into use it was necessary for Congress to open roads between different places, but now there is no necessity for this, as the railroads go to almost every town in the country.

The management of post-offices is under the control of the Postmaster-General, who was made a cabinet officer in Jackson's administration. There are at present sixty-six thousand post-offices. The progress of the post-office is shown by the facility with which the mail is now handled.

Formerly, it took a week for a letter to go from Philadelphia to New York; to-day, a letter can be written in one of these cities and delivered within several hours.

Railroad and steamship companies receive contracts to carry the mail to distant places. By arrangements with foreign countries letters are quickly delivered in almost all parts of the world.

In 1851 it cost ten cents, later reduced to six cents, to send a letter from New York to California. In 1863 the rate was reduced to three cents to any part of the United States, and in 1883 to two cents. Five cents is charged to send a letter to any of the civilized countries of the world.

Patents and Copyrights.

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive rights to their respective writings and discoveries.

Copyrights.—When a person spends years in study for the purpose of writing a book containing his best thoughts, it is right that he should receive all the credit and benefits attached to it. If he published the work and every publishing company had the right also to publish it, he would receive little compensation for his long labor.

In order to encourage study and to protect authors, Congress has given to writers the sole privilege of publishing their works. This privilege is called a copyright.

A copyright may be obtained by sending one dollar with the title-page and two copies of the work to the Librarian of Congress at Washington, D. C. A copyright lasts for twenty-eight years, and at the expiration of that time may be renewed for fourteen years, thus securing to an author protection for his work for forty-two years.

The writings of different authors of a country taken

Literature of Our Country

- Revolutionary period . . .
  - Joseph Rodman Drake . . — American Flag; Culprit Fay.
  - Fitz-Greene Halleck . . . — On the Death of Drake; Marco Bozzaris.
  - Thomas Paine. . . . . — Crisis.
  - Benjamin Franklin . . . — Autobiography; Poor Richard's Almanac.
  - Thomas Jefferson . . . . — Notes on Virginia; Declaration of Independence.
- Birth of American literature in Monroe's administration . .
  - William Cullen Bryant . — Thanatopsis; Green River.
  - Washington Irving . . . — History of New York; Life of Columbus; Life of Washington.
  - James Fenimore Cooper . — The Deerslayer; Last of the Mohicans; The Spy.
- Extension of American literature in Jackson's administration. . . . .
  - John Greenleaf Whittier — Barbara Frietchie; Snow-Bound; Among the Hills.
  - Henry W. Longfellow . . — Evangeline; Hiawatha; Courtship of Miles Standish.
  - Oliver Wendell Holmes . — Elsie Venner; Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table.
  - Nathaniel Hawthorne . — Scarlet Letter; Twice-Told Tales.
  - George Bancroft . . . . — History of the United States.
  - William H. Prescott. . . — Conquest of Mexico; Ferdinand and Isabella.
- Literature in Buchanan's administration. . . . .
  - John Lothrop Motley . . — Rise of the Dutch Republic; Life of John of Barneveldt.
  - Ralph Waldo Emerson . — Representative Men; Essays.
  - James Russell Lowell . . — Biglow Papers; Vision of Sir Launfal.

collectively form the literature of that country. American literature is the writings of American authors.

In 1891 Congress, by arrangement with foreign countries, secured the passage of an International Copyright Law, by which American authors could have their works protected in foreign countries, and, in return, foreigners could secure copyrights in the United States.

Patents.—A patent is an exclusive right to an invention or an improvement of an invention. Patents are secured from the Commissioner of Patents at Washington, D. C. A plan or model of the machine, together with fifteen dollars, must be sent to the Patent-Office. A search is then made through the records to see whether such an invention has already been patented. If it has been, the fifteen dollars paid is not refunded, but if no such article has been patented, a patent is granted on the payment of twenty dollars more. This gives the inventor the exclusive right to his invention for a period of seventeen years. At the expiration of this time it cannot be renewed.

Patents and copyrights may be sold to other persons. At the expiration of a copyright or patent any one may publish the writing or manufacture the machine.

We have good reason to be proud of our country in the line of inventions. America has given to the world some of the greatest time- and labor-saving machines. Since the beginning of our government there have been issued over three hundred thousand patents. To this list there are being added annually not less than twenty thousand patents.

A few of the many inventions made in the United States are contained in the following table, which also shows the name of the inventor and the date of the invention:

Invention.	Inventor.	Year.
Fireplace and Lightning-rod . .	Benjamin Franklin.	1742 and 1760
Nail Machine.	Jacob Perkins.	1790
Cotton Gin	Eli Whitney.	1793
Steam Dredge	Oliver Evans.	1803
Steamboat	Robert Fulton.	1807
McCormick's Reaper	Cyrus McCormick.	1834
Screw Propeller.	John Ericsson.	1836
Magnetic Telegraph	Samuel F. B. Morse.	1844
Rubber Goods	Charles Goodyear.	1844
Sewing-machine	Elias Howe.	1846
Printing-press	Richard Hoe.	1847
Iron-clad War-ships.	John Ericsson.	1863
Submarine Cable	Cyrus Field.	1858 and 1866
Electric Light	Thomas A. Edison.	1876
Telephone	Alex. Graham Bell.	1876
Phonograph	Thomas A. Edison.	1877

Promotion of Science.—Congress shows its interest in science and the useful arts by encouraging, from time to time, the holding of large fairs, where different articles from the various States and countries are exhibited. Large sums of money are appropriated by Congress for this purpose.

Exhibitions in United States.

1. Crystal Palace, New York, 1853.
2. Centennial, Philadelphia, 1876.
3. Cotton Centennial, New Orleans, 1884.
4. World's Fair, Chicago, 1893.
5. Omaha Exposition, Omaha, 1898.
6. Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, 1904.

The Smithsonian Institution.—Congress further shows its interest in science by making appropriations to the Smithsonian Institution. This is located in Washington, D. C.

It was organized in accordance with the terms of the will of James Smithson, an Englishman, who left five hundred thousand dollars to the United States for the purpose. It was accepted by the government in 1846, when an act was passed which provided for the carrying out of the provisions of the will.

In this building are rooms containing excellent specimens of various objects,—such as minerals, plants, and works of art. Investigations in science are carried on, the results of which are printed and distributed throughout the world. The building also contains libraries, lecture-rooms, and laboratories.

Inferior Tribunals.

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court.

Inferior Courts.—A tribunal is a court of justice; a place where the laws of the country are explained; where criminals are tried and punished.

When the Constitution was made it provided for one Supreme Court. It was impossible to see into the future, hence, when the business of the country requires it, Congress is given the power to establish additional courts. At this time one Supreme Court would be entirely insufficient to deal with all cases that arise in the several States. The Supreme Court is the highest. Lower courts have been established to try the minor cases and thus prevent too many cases being taken to the Supreme Court.

Courts of the United States.

1. Supreme Court, 1.
2. Circuit Courts, 9.
3. District Courts, 78.
4. Court of District of Columbia, 1.
5. Court of Claims, 1.
6. Court for each Territory, 3.

Piracies, Felonies, etc.

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the Law of Nations.

Piracy and Felony.—Piracy is the act of plundering vessels at sea. Felony is any crime of a serious nature.

Piracy can only be committed on the sea, but felony may be committed both on land and sea. Felony is not a special crime but the class name of many crimes,—such as murder, burglary, arson, perjury, and forgery. When crimes are committed on land, it is easy to say where the person or persons shall be tried and punished. When a crime is not committed on land, Congress alone has the power to say where the trial shall be held and what punishment shall be inflicted. The punishment for piracy is death.

From 1700 to 1800 piracy flourished in different parts of the world. As late as 1804 the rulers of Tripoli and the other Barbary States engaged in this nefarious business. They maintained vessels which sailed on the Mediterranean Sea and demanded tribute from other vessels. If tribute were not paid, the vessel was taken and the crew sold as slaves. In 1804 the United States declared war against Tripoli, and in a short time the Mediterranean was freed from these destroyers of commerce.

Law of Nations is a body of laws agreed to by civilized nations on certain subjects. If offences against these laws could not be punished they might as well be repealed. Each nation agreeing to the Law of Nations is responsible for its enforcement.

War—Marque and Reprisal.

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water.

War.—A declaration of war is a resolution, passed by Congress and signed by the President, stating that war

exists between this country and some other. A declaration of war is not necessary to begin hostilities. Sometimes the relations between two countries are greatly strained. The people on either side are so excited that they commit some act which is really an insult to the other nation. In such cases the flag is insulted, mobs rush on the residence of the consul and attempt to destroy it, and frequently the consul is personally insulted. At other times, the cause may be with the government. The minister from the opposing country is given his passports, which is but another sign that the countries are about to begin war.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century France was engaged in a war with England. The French seized many American merchant vessels, and the cargoes and ships were used for the benefit of France. In after-years a claim was made by the United States against France to repair the damage. The French promised to pay the United States five million dollars. Up to Jackson's administration this promise had not been kept, and Jackson asked Congress to authorize the seizure of French ships to make up the amount. Before this scheme could be resorted to the amount was paid. Had Jackson's recommendation been carried out, war would have been the result, and a formal declaration of war would have been useless.

A declaration of war may contain the reasons why a war is about to begin, or it serves to give notice to other countries that a state of war exists between or among certain nations.

Declaration of the War of 1812.

"Be it enacted, that war be, and the same is hereby, declared to exist, between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dependencies thereof, and the United States of America and their Territories; and that the President of the United States is hereby authorized to use the whole land and naval force of the United States

to carry the same into effect, and to issue to private armed vessels of the United States commissions or letters of marque and general reprisal, in such form as he shall think proper, and under the seal of the United States, against the vessels, goods, and effects of the government of the said United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the subjects thereof."

Wars of Our Country.

In Colonial Times:

1. Various Indian wars.
2. French and Indian War.
3. Revolutionary War.

United States Wars:

War.	Date.	Cause.	Result.
1. War with Tripoli.	1801–1805	Attacks by pirates on American commerce.	Piracy stopped.
2. War of 1812.	1812–1815	Impressment of American seamen.	Impressment stopped.
3. Mexican War.	1846–1848	Annexation of Texas and boundary dispute.	Boundary fixed at Rio Grande. Mexico was paid $15,000,000.
4. Civil War.	1861–1865	Nullification. Election of Lincoln. Secession of States. Fort Sumter. Slavery.	Union above the State. Led to passage of Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery in the United States and its Territories.
5. War with Spain.	1898	Refusal of Spain to evacuate Cuba. The destruction of the "Maine." Refusal of Spain to desist from cruel methods of warfare.	Cuba, Porto Rico, Guam, Philippine Islands, and Sulu Islands lost by Spain and placed under control of the United States. Spain received $20,000,000 for the Philippines.

Letters of Marque and Reprisal.—A letter of marque and reprisal is a written permission from the government to ship-owners allowing them to capture vessels of the enemy. Such commissioned vessels are known as privateers. The captured property belongs principally to the owners of the privateers. Suppose you had a strong iron steamer, and war broke out, you could ask for a letter of marque and reprisal, equip your ship with cannon and other arms, and sail the ocean until you met a weaker ship of the enemy, which you could capture and bring into port.

When many ships receive these letters they really form a second navy of a country, and the commerce of the enemy could be destroyed in a short time by these privateers. As each country obtains some of its food products and other supplies from foreign countries, the damage would be great.

Taking ships by this method is really piracy; but, as it only occurs in time of war, and as the government grants these letters, the holders, if captured, cannot be hanged or shot as pirates. They must be treated as prisoners of war.

To have some system in times of war, Congress is given power by the Constitution to make rules as to what shall be done with property and prisoners captured on land by the army and on the sea by the navy and privateers.

Armies.

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years.

Army.—Congress has the power to declare war. To carry on a war an army and navy are necessary, so we find the power to raise and maintain these also delegated to Congress. Large standing armies are necessary in mon-

archies to keep down the people. They are also necessary in countries having large colonial possessions, as these must be guarded to prevent rebellion. To prevent a large standing army no money can be drawn or appropriated by Congress for this purpose for more than two years.

One-third of the Senate and the entire House of Representatives are elected every two years. This enables the people to give or refuse their consent to an appropriation for a large standing army by voting for representatives who will carry out the will of their constituents. If the present Congress should say that the army should number two hundred thousand men, and appropriate the money for the support of this number, the army would be very much increased and the expense of supporting it would be great. However, at the end of the terms of the members of Congress the people, if opposed to a large army, could defeat the old members if they were renominated, and choose new representatives who would carry out their wishes. The new members would most likely make a small appropriation for the support of the army, thus causing the number of men in the army to be decreased.

At present Congress appropriates the money for the army's support every year.

Military Academy.—The power to raise armies carries with it the power to provide for the training of those who are to command them. Without this power the efficiency of the army would be impaired. As early as 1802 the necessity for providing capable officers was seen, and an academy in which they could be trained in the science and art of war was established at West Point, New York.

Each member and territorial delegate in Congress is allowed to appoint one cadet to the Military Academy.

The President is authorized to appoint one cadet from the District of Columbia, one from Porto Rico, and forty from the United States at large. Each appointee must be an actual resident of the State, District, or Territory from which the appointment is made. He must also pass physical and mental examinations before his appointment becomes effective. The course at West Point embraces a term of four years, at the end of which the cadets are graduated and given appointments in the army.

Navy.

13. To provide and maintain a navy.

Navy.—The navy is the collection of war-ships which a nation needs to protect its fisheries, coast, and commerce. A navy is used where an army cannot go. In war, when the army and navy act together much is accomplished.

No time limit is placed upon appropriations for the support of the navy because a strong navy is more desirable and necessary than a large standing army. The navy, moving continually from place to place, is seldom near home, and, as a rule, is free from political influence.

Under the navy are included navy-yards, dry-docks, coaling stations, and the Naval Academy at Annapolis. The direction of the navy is under the control of the Secretary of the Navy, who is a cabinet officer.

The navy of the United States has won many notable victories,—viz.:

Paul Jones, "Bonhomme Richard" and "Serapis," in the Revolutionary War.

Lieutenant Decatur, in the war with Tripoli, 1804.

Captain Hull, "Constitution" and "Guerrière," 1812.

Commodore Perry, Lake Erie, 1813.

Admirals Farragut and Porter, New Orleans, 1862.

Captain Worden, "Monitor" and "Merrimac," 1862.
Captain Winslow, "Kearsarge" and "Alabama," 1864.
Admiral Dewey, Manila Bay, 1898.
Admirals Sampson and Schley, Santiago, 1898.

The Naval Academy bears the same relation to the navy as the Military Academy does to the army. It was founded at Annapolis, Md., in 1845, for the purpose of providing the navy with capable officers. Its students are styled "Midshipmen." Each member and territorial delegate in Congress may appoint two midshipmen; the President may appoint two from the District of Columbia, one from Porto Rico, and five from the United States at large. The course is six years, two of which are spent at sea, at the end of which graduation takes place and appointments to the navy are made.

Land and Naval Forces.

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces.

Government of Army and Navy.—The money for the support of the army and navy is drawn from the National Treasury. Both the army and navy are under the control of national officers, hence it is right that Congress should have the power to make rules for their government.

Calling out Militia.

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions.

Militia.—In time of peace, the policy of the government is to retain a small standing army. In time of war, it is necessary to augment this force. Additional men are secured by a system called the "militia," by which each State must furnish in a short time a large number of troops. The militia of all the States forms the National Guard.

A militiaman is a citizen who during the day works at his vocation but gives several evenings a week to military drill. He is simply a citizen of a State who receives instruction in the use of weapons and in military tactics. All the militiamen of the States form the militia system. The militia is not a standing army, as its members are not kept from following their occupations.

Advantages of the Militia System.—1. Very little money is required to support it, as its members receive no pay unless engaged in actual service. Therefore, while other countries must increase their taxes to support their standing armies, this expense is saved to us, thus making lower taxes possible.

2. During the different wars it has been found that the militia, although not as thoroughly trained as the regulars, are brave soldiers.

3. In foreign countries, soldiers in the different cities are continually fighting with the citizens. In our country, soldiers are seldom seen, and disputes between them and the citizens are of rare occurrence.

4. Men in a standing army do very little towards the improvement of a country from a commercial stand-point in times of peace. By the system of militia, thousands of men are also engaged in manufacturing and commerce, in tilling the soil, or are otherwise employed in some useful occupation.

Comparison of the Militia and the Regular Army.—1. The militia receive no pay; the regulars receive a fixed monthly salary.

2. The militia is for the defence of a State, and of the United States when conditions require; the regulars are United States soldiers.

3. The regulars are better drilled, but the militia soon improve when in actual service.

4. The regulars are always ready to act; it requires one or two days to get the militia ready.

The militia, although they are State soldiers, are under the control of the President and Congress. They may be called into the United States service to:

1. Execute the laws of the Union.
2. Suppress insurrections.
3. Repel invasions.

The militia of the different States have been called upon to execute the laws of the Union upon these occasions:

Whiskey Rebellion, 1794.
War with England, 1812.
War with Mexico, 1846.
Civil War, 1861–1865.
War with Spain, 1898.

An insurrection is an uprising of people in a State against its authority, and is generally caused by dissatisfaction with some law or laws.

In 1794 the people of Western Pennsylvania were extensively engaged in the manufacture of whiskey. The government was in urgent need of funds, and Alexander Hamilton proposed a tax on whiskey to increase the revenue of the country. The men in Pennsylvania refused to pay this tax. Washington called out the militia of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Maryland to suppress the insurrection. When the troops arrived the distillers obeyed the law.

Organizing, arming, and disciplining Militia.

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress.

Militia under Congress.—As the militiamen of the States become, at times, soldiers of the United States, it is very necessary that they should be like the regular army in as many respects as possible. A militia and a regular regiment

of the United States army might have to act together, and if they understood commands in different ways little impression would be made upon the enemy. To secure harmony between the militia and the army, Congress has control of the organizing, arming, and disciplining of both.

Under organization Congress fixes the following:

1. The number of men in a company.
2. The number of companies in a regiment.
3. The number of regiments in a brigade.
4. The number of brigades in a corps.
5. The officers for each.

The militiamen, it must not be forgotten, are State soldiers; they become national soldiers only when called upon to perform some service for the government of the United States. Congress makes rules for their training, and the officers train them according to these rules. When the militia is in the national service and an officer dies or resigns, the Governor of the State from which the militia comes appoints a new man. This is manifestly proper, because the men in the militia regiment generally come from the same district or locality and know each other personally; hence, if the President should appoint a perfect stranger from another part of the country to command them, the men might become dissatisfied.

Exclusive Legislation over District of Columbia, etc.

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings.

Seat of Government.—This clause relates to the place where the Capital of the country may be located. "To exercise exclusive legislation" means that Congress shall have full power to direct the affairs of the land occupied by the Capital. The land occupied by the government must necessarily be in some State. If the State had control over such district laws might be made which would seriously interfere with the free working of the national government. To prevent the authorities of the State from clashing with the authorities of the nation, the control of the district occupied by the government is separated from the State and put in charge of the nation.

In order that the seat of government of the United States may not occupy too much territory of a State, its area is expressly prohibited from being more than ten miles square, or one hundred square miles in area.

The District of Columbia is neither a State nor a Territory, but is under the direct supervision of Congress. The people in the District have no representation in Congress, nor do they vote.

To have the capital of the nation within any State is a great honor, and many States would willingly donate land for this purpose. Any land for this use must be given first by the State to the United States, and then accepted by Congress. The District of Columbia was originally ten miles square, and was situated in Maryland and Virginia. The part ceded by Virginia was returned to that State, so that the present site is only on the Maryland side of the Potomac River. The District of Columbia is only seventy square miles in area. The site of the present city of Washington was selected by the man whose name it bears. In 1814 the Capitol was burned by the British, but it was soon rebuilt and made more beautiful.

CAPITALS OF THE UNITED STATES.

City.	State.	Year.	Congress.
1. Philadelphia .	Pennsylvania.	1776	Second Continental Congress.
2. Baltimore . .	Maryland.	1776	Second Continental Congress.
3. Philadelphia .	Pennsylvania.	1777	Second Continental Congress.
4. Lancaster . .	Pennsylvania.	1777	Second Continental Congress.
5. York	Pennsylvania.	1777	Second Continental Congress.
6. Philadelphia .	Pennsylvania.	1778	Second Continental Congress.
7. Princeton . .	New Jersey.	1783	Second Continental Congress.
8. Annapolis . .	Maryland.	1783	Second Continental Congress.
9. Trenton . . .	New Jersey.	1784	Second Continental Congress.
10. New York . .	New York.	1785–1790	National Congress.
11. Philadelphia .	Pennsylvania.	1791–1800	National Congress.
12. Washington .	District of Columbia.	1800–——	National Congress.

Two things are necessary to acquire land for national purposes in any State,—namely:

1. The consent of the Legislature of the State.
2. The consent of Congress.

For its various purposes Congress frequently buys land in the different States. Such land is needed for:

1. Forts.
2. Arsenals.
3. Dock-yards.
4. Post-offices.
5. Custom-houses.
6. Public parks.
7. Mints.

The land bought by Congress becomes United States property. All disputes about such land and all crimes committed within its boundaries must be tried in the United States courts.

The restriction of territory to one hundred square miles relates only to the seat of government. Congress may purchase larger tracts of land than this for other purposes. The Yellowstone Park belongs to the government of the United States, and contains about three thousand five hundred and seventy-five square miles. This is under the control of the Secretary of the Interior.

A fort is a strengthened place supplied with heavy arms. It is generally situated at the entrance of a city for its protection.

An arsenal is a place where ammunition and arms are manufactured and stored.

A dock-yard is a place located in a harbor. It is used as a station for war-ships.

A post-office is a place where mail matter is received and assorted for delivery.

A custom-house is an office where taxes levied upon foreign or domestic goods are payable.

A public park is a large tract of land set apart for the use of the people. These places are bought either for historical interest or for their natural beauty; for instance, Chickamauga and Gettysburg for their historical value and Yellowstone Park for its beauty.

A mint is a building where the coin of the country is manufactured. Philadelphia, San Francisco, New Orleans, and Carson City have mints.

Power given to enforce Constitution.

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all

other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Congress and the Enforcement of the Constitution.—The principal reason why the Articles of Confederation were a failure was that Congress had absolutely no power to compel the people of the country to obey the laws made by it. A right to do anything without power for its execution really amounts to nothing. Had this clause been in the Articles, possibly the necessity for a new form of government would not have been so greatly needed. The Articles with this addition would have been much better, and might have governed the States for many years longer.

Under the preceding seventeen clauses Congress is empowered to perform different functions, and to make no mistake in regard to these, this clause is especially placed in the Constitution. It is simply a repetition of the different powers.

The clause has been called the "elastic or sweeping clause," because it can be extended to almost anything. When Hamilton attempted to establish a national bank in 1791 and proposed his funding system many people objected, saying that the right to establish these was nowhere mentioned in the Constitution. Hamilton quoted this clause. In no part of the Constitution is Congress given the right to purchase territory, yet under this clause the following tracts came under the jurisdiction of the government:

1. Louisiana, bought by Jefferson, 1803.
2. Florida, secured in 1819.
3. Part of Mexico, purchased by Gadsden, 1853.
4. Alaska, bought in 1867.
5. Philippines, acquired in 1898.

The clause means that for the purpose of executing the different powers granted to it by the Constitution, Congress may have the authority to pass any law. It also means that Congress may do anything that will promote the general welfare of the country.

SUMMARY.

1. The various subjects on which Congress may make laws are mentioned in the Constitution.

2. Taxes are needed in every country to raise money to defray its expenses. In the United States all taxes must be uniform.

3. Congress has power to borrow money, to regulate commerce, to establish post-offices, to grant patents and copyrights.

4. Many foreigners come to our shores with the intention of becoming permanent residents. They should have the same political rights as our own people. To have these they must be naturalized. Naturalization is under the control of Congress.

5. One kind of money is desirable for all parts of the same country. To secure uniformity the power to coin money is delegated to Congress. If any one else coins money he does so without authority, and commits a crime known as counterfeiting.

6. Whenever the business of the United States courts becomes so great as to require assistance, other courts may be established by Congress.

7. Crimes committed on sea shall be punished as well as those perpetrated on land. This is provided for by the power given to Congress to punish piracies and felonies.

8. All matters pertaining to war are in the hands of Congress: declaring war, granting letters of marque and reprisal, making rules concerning captures, raising armies, providing for a navy, calling out the militia, and providing for the organization and discipline of the militia.

9. United States property and territory are under the control of Congress.

10. To make laws and not have power to execute them is useless, as they will not be obeyed. All power necessary to execute a law is possessed by Congress.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is taxation? Why is proper taxation just?

2. The United States once had a war with England over taxation. Why were we right in fighting?

3. Write the names of the different kinds of taxes.

4. What is duty? Name the varieties.

5. Explain the derivation of the word "tariff."

6. Write a brief description of the various troubles which were due to taxes and taxation.

7. What does the Constitution say about borrowing money, commerce, naturalization, and bankruptcy?

8. Explain an advantage and a disadvantage of immigration.

9. In what way is naturalization beneficial, and how is it harmful?

10. Give the clauses pertaining to money, counterfeiting, and post-offices.

11. The makers of the Constitution made great efforts to have certain matters uniform. Take money as an illustration and show the benefits derived from uniformity on this subject.

12. Explain ad valorem duty, tariff, nullification, commerce, coin, naturalization.

13. In what manner do patents and copyrights promote "the progress of science and the useful arts"?

14. What power has Congress over tribunals?

15. Why should Congress have the power to declare war?

16. What is a declaration of war?

17. Of what advantage to a nation is it to issue letters of marque and reprisal?

18. If Congress has power to declare war, what other powers necessary to carry on a war should be given to that body?

19. Militia: (*a*) What is meant by the term? (*b*) What are the advantages derived from a militia system? (*c*) Make a comparison with the regular army. (*d*) On what occasions has it been called into service? (*e*) What power has Congress over it? (*f*) What power has the State over it?

20. What power has Congress over government property?

21. Of all the powers of Congress give the most important one.

22. Explain literature, tribunal, felony, militia, capital, piracy.

CHAPTER X.

POWERS DENIED TO CONGRESS AND TO THE STATES.

Limitation of the Powers—Migration of Slaves.

Sec. IX. 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

What Congress cannot do.—We have just studied the different subjects upon which Congress can make laws. There are some subjects, however, which, if laws were made regarding them, would be injurious to the people. Our country is very different from a monarchy, and laws which would be for the benefit of the latter would be harmful to the former. In order that the rights of the people shall be protected the Constitution prescribes some questions over which Congress has no power.

Slave-Trade.—The word slavery is mentioned but twice in the Constitution. It was considered disgraceful to have slavery in a civilized country, hence the use of the word "slavery" was avoided. "Such persons" in this clause is the manner in which the makers of the Constitution referred to slaves.

The "migration or importation" means the bringing in and selling of slaves. The slave-trade which was begun in 1619 could be carried on without interference by Congress

until the year 1808. This does not infer that slavery should cease in the United States, but simply the bringing in of slaves from foreign countries could be stopped in 1808. A tax, however, of any amount of money not exceeding ten dollars for each slave brought into the country, could be laid while the slave-trade continued. When it ceased to exist the tax also ceased.

In the Convention of 1787 the question of slavery was very much discussed. The delegates from the Southern States said that the Constitution would not be ratified by their States unless slavery was permitted to exist. In order to secure their support a compromise was effected, allowing the slave-trade to continue until 1808.

In accordance with this clause, Congress, in 1807, passed a bill which became a law stating that at the beginning of the year 1808 slave traffic must cease. Slavery having been entirely abolished as a result of the Civil War and the Thirteenth Amendment, this clause is no longer operative, and at present it is of no particular value as a part of the Constitution. A knowledge of it is useful only from an historical stand-point.

Habeas Corpus.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

Habeas Corpus.—Many parts of the Constitution are copied after the laws of England. This is to be expected, as most of the early inhabitants came from England, bringing with them their English customs, manners, language, and laws. Most of these laws, of course, have undergone much change to suit the conditions of the new country. Some, however, have been copied exactly. Among these

is the writ of *habeas corpus*, which was passed by the English Parliament in 1679.

This writ is an order from a judge given to a friend of a person charged with a crime. The writ is served upon the person who has the prisoner under his charge. It orders him to produce the body or prisoner in court. The judge after hearing the case decides whether the prisoner is deprived of his liberty for sufficient reason. If there be sufficient cause the prisoner is sent back to prison to await his trial, but if the cause be insufficient he is set at liberty. The judge does not attempt to find out whether the person is guilty or innocent, but simply decides whether the evidence against the person is strong enough to warrant his detention in prison.

The object of this clause is to protect people from unjust imprisonment. In England at one time people were frequently arrested and sent to prison without knowing the reason for their imprisonment. These persons had no remedy, but were compelled to await the pleasure of the king.

This is such an important right in our country that it can never be refused except in two cases. In case of a rebellion or an invasion the country might have so many enemies within its territory as to cause its ruin. The enemies might be arrested, but sufficient evidence might not be at hand in so short a time to convict them; so that these persons could by a writ of *habeas corpus* obtain their liberty and commence the evil work again. In such cases, in times of public danger and excitement, Congress and the President can refuse to grant these writs. However, when the danger is removed, they must again be issued. In 1863 President Lincoln, with the consent of Congress, suspended the writ.

Example of a Writ of Habeas Corpus Case.—John Walker, who was recently arrested and committed to prison, was released by Judge Jones as a result of a writ of *habeas corpus*. The testimony showed that Walker had been arrested on a street-car by a detective. A watch had been stolen from a passenger. The detective thought that because Walker was near the person whose watch was taken he must be the guilty person. There being no evidence at hand to show that Walker committed the crime or even thought of committing it, he was discharged.

Bills of Attainder and Ex Post Facto Laws prohibited.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

Attainder.—A bill of attainder is an act of a Legislature condemning a person to death without a trial. Attaint means to stain or disgrace. A person against whom such a bill was passed in olden times was said to be attainted or disgraced. All the property of the victim went to the treasury of the king, thus preventing the victim's relatives from inheriting any of his money or property.

This power in the hands of dishonest men could be fearfully abused. For the sake of increasing the money in the Treasury, any rich man for supposed crime would be likely to lose his life without even having an opportunity to defend himself. This is so unjust that Congress is forbidden to pass such a bill.

An *ex post facto law* is one which changes a law that already exists, making:

1. An act a crime which was not a crime when committed, or,
2. Increasing the punishment attached to a crime.

For robbing the United States mail Congress fixes a certain punishment,—two years' imprisonment. A man commits this crime on January 8 and is tried for the offence on January 25. The Congress which is in session passes a bill which becomes a law on January 10. This new law says that one found guilty of committing such an act should be sentenced to four years' imprisonment. The man is found guilty of the offence. Which punishment should he receive, two or four years? Four years' punishment would be *ex post facto*, as it was not the punishment which was in force when the crime was committed, and therefore the imposition of such a punishment would be very unjust.

In Philadelphia several years ago wagons and vehicles of every description were allowed to travel in any direction and on either side of the street. This led to frequent collisions and loss of life. A law requiring all vehicles to travel on the right side only, and fixing a penalty for its violation, was enacted. Suppose, now, a policeman of that city remembered that a certain man a week before the law was made had driven on the left side of the street. Could he be punished? Certainly not. It would be *ex post facto*, —*i.e.*, it would be making an act a crime which was not a crime when committed.

Congress is not allowed to pass any *ex post facto* laws.

Capitation and Other Direct Taxes.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

Method of laying Direct Taxes.—A direct tax is one laid directly upon the people, such as a poll tax or a property tax. "Capitation" means so much per head; it is a direct tax,—a certain sum being laid on each person.

Census and enumeration in this clause have the same meaning as in Article I., Section 2, Clause 3, in which Congress is compelled to take the population of all States every ten years.

Taxes are burdensome to the people, hence great care must be taken in deciding the manner in which they are laid. They must be equal. When one person is compelled to pay more for the support of the government than another, dissatisfaction is caused. Should this become wide-spread, the government would find some difficulty in suppressing it. In laying direct taxes one great object is desired,—they should be the same in all States. This end is secured by laying such taxes according to population. As Pennsylvania contains many more people than Maryland, more money would be received from the former State than from the latter.

Exports not to be taxed.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No Preference to be given to Ports of any State.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

Tax on Exports.—One way of obtaining money is by taxing imports, or the goods brought into a country. Exports are goods sent out of the country. No tax can be laid on articles exported from any State, because:

1. It might injure the commerce of the State.
2. It would be difficult to fix the tax.

The products and manufactures of the States depend on various circumstances,—viz., on their location, upon the climate, on the soil, on the people, on ships, railroads, and

means of communication. These conditions are not the same in all States, but vary in each one. Because of these vast differences, each State is unlike the others in regard to products and manufactures. Four States are selected to show this:

MAINE.—Lumber and ice.
NEW YORK.—Manufactures and commerce.
CALIFORNIA.—Fruits and gold.
GEORGIA.—Agriculture.

Each State having different products, it would certainly be a very difficult task for Congress to fix a just tax on the several articles. If the tax were ten cents a pound on cotton, what should it be on lumber, ice, or gold? This would be a perplexing problem, and impossible of adjustment.

Some States in the interior, like Kentucky, Iowa, Arkansas, Idaho, or Colorado, have little commerce and export few articles, hence the people in these States would pay little or no export tax, while States like Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Georgia, which export a vast quantity of goods, would really pay the larger part of such a tax.

For these reasons no export duty can be laid by Congress.

Commerce and Seaports.—"A regulation of commerce or revenue" is a law dealing with commerce or taxation. Laws are made on many subjects. They are sometimes given names from the subjects with which they deal. Requiring vessels to have life-preservers on board would be a regulation or law of commerce. A tax of ten per cent. ad valorem on diamonds would be a regulation of revenue.

This clause requires Congress to treat every seaport alike, and thus prevents the giving to one port an advantage over

another. An example of a violation of this clause would be the following: New York and Philadelphia both import large quantities of raw sugar. On this sugar there is a tax. Suppose Congress should say that all vessels entering the port of New York shall pay a tax of eight cents a pound and those entering Philadelphia four cents a pound. From this it can be seen that as soon as such a bill became a law, all vessels engaged in the sugar trade would come to Philadelphia for the purpose of saving the four cents additional tax. As one vessel will carry thousands of tons, the saving of money by going to Philadelphia would be enormous. The result would be an increase in Philadelphia's sugar trade, and probably a total destruction of that of New York.

When a vessel leaves port, certain papers, known as "clearance papers," are given to the captain by the custom-house officers of the port. The papers give a variety of information about the vessel,—the name of the captain, the capacity, the place of destination, and the number of men. When the vessel receives these papers she leaves port, and is said to clear it. When the vessel arrives at the port of destination the papers are given to the custom-house officers of that port. Duties are paid, and if the vessel is prepared to depart new clearance papers are granted to the captain. No vessel can depart from port without these papers.

Congress cannot direct the course of vessels at sea. A vessel is bound for Boston from Rio Janeiro. This vessel would take the shortest route and thus save time and money. Suppose Congress should say that the vessel must enter Philadelphia, pay duties there, and clear for Boston. Such a course would be an absolute waste of three or four days in coming up the Delaware River and returning to the sea,

and would not amount to anything but a loss of time and money.

During colonial days, this unwise policy was forced upon the Colonies by England. All commerce was carried on by English ships and through English ports.

Whenever it is seen that a mistake has been made, it is always to the interest of all concerned that an examination be made of the causes. If we do not profit by our mistakes and those of others we will make no progress. This English custom was dropped when the time came to adopt a new body of laws for the country.

Money, how drawn from Treasury—Financial Statements to be published.

7. No money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

Appropriations.—Treasury.—Receipts are the various amounts of money which are received by the government from different sources.

Expenditures are the amounts paid out of the Treasury for the expenses of the government.

All money is placed in the Treasury of the United States, and is in charge of the Secretary of the Treasury, who is a cabinet officer.

To make government officers careful and responsible for the use of the money two conditions are imposed on them,—viz.:

1. No money can be drawn from the Treasury except by appropriation.

2. A statement of the condition of the Treasury must be given from time to time.

An Appropriation Bill is one which is passed by Congress and becomes a law saying that a fixed sum of money is to be taken from the Treasury, and naming the purpose for which it is to be expended. For instance, if it were the desire of Congress to construct a war-ship to cost three million dollars, it would be necessary to prepare a bill and have it passed by both houses and signed by the President.

If the houses were very extravagant, the President could easily guard the people's money by vetoing all such bills.

Every month a statement showing the condition of the Treasury is issued. In it are found the amounts received, the sums expended, and the surplus on hand. The amount of money remaining after the expenses have been deducted is known as the surplus.

This statement is published in the newspapers, and the people know whether too much money has been expended and whether their representatives have been thrifty or extravagant.

A daily statement of the finances is also issued.

Titles of Nobility not to be granted—Acceptance by Government Officers of Favors from Foreign Powers.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

Titles.—In many countries the inhabitants are divided into classes to show that one is superior to the others. These classes have different names or titles to distinguish them. Some titles are lord, earl, duke, sir, and viscount.

In the United States, people are all equal in the eyes of the law. Ambition, however, is not cast aside. People

elevate themselves above their neighbors. One who by thrift, judgment, and soberness earns wealth and position in the community is certainly higher in the scale of life than an indolent person. No classes, however, are marked, and no titles are given in the United States.

In 1789 the name by which the President was to be known was a matter of dispute. The United States Senate wished him to be known as "His Highness the President of the United States and Protector of their Liberties," but the people disliked such titles, and he was simply called "The President" or "Mr. President." The manners of the people were so plain that Jefferson is said to have ridden to the capital on horseback.

An office of profit is a position under the government, the holder of which receives a certain sum of money for the work done by him.

An office of trust is a position filled by a person who receives pay for his duties, but the responsibilities are greater than an office of profit. The office of Secretary of the Treasury is a position of trust, greater qualifications being required than for other offices. The Secretary of the Treasury receives a yearly salary, which would make the place an office of profit besides being one of trust.

An office of honor is one in which the occupant receives no remuneration. The honor of serving the government is seldom refused by any one.

Presents.—A citizen holding an office of profit or trust under the United States cannot accept a present from any one unless the consent of Congress is secured. Illustration: Mr. Black, who is a physician, is ambassador of the United States to China. While in that country he discovers a method for curing a disease which is prevalent at the time.

The Emperor of China, to show his regard for him, presents him with a large sum of money. Dr. Black, holding a position under the United States government, is forbidden by the Constitution to accept the gift unless Congress gives him permission to do so. The service performed was a good one, and no doubt the consent of both houses could easily be secured. There might be other cases, however, in which a sum of money or some other gift might be given as pay for some wrong action. Illustration: The duty on certain articles exported from Germany to this country is very high. This results in the raising of the price of these articles, and consequently less are used. The commerce in such articles is brought to a standstill. Germany could offer several Senators and Representatives large sums of money to have the duties lowered. In this way harm would result. The government pays its men a sufficient salary, and there appears to be no need for them to accept more from any other country. Of course, a citizen not an office-holder can accept presents from foreign countries without any one's approval but his own.

Limitations of the Powers of Individual States.

Sec. X. 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Powers denied to the States.—We have studied the powers granted and those denied to Congress. The powers granted to the States are not mentioned, but those denied to them are. Under the Articles of Confederation, the powers were not placed under the three heads,—viz.:

1. Those granted to Congress.
2. Those denied to the United States.
3. Those denied to the States.

This led to some doubt as to which body had the legal authority in certain cases. Where all the powers are specifically enumerated and placed into classes this doubt is dispelled. Many of the powers denied to the United States are also denied to the States. The following table illustrates some powers granted to Congress but denied to the individual States, and some which are denied to both:

Power.	United States.	States.
To grant letters of marque and reprisal . . .	Granted.	Denied.
To coin money	Granted.	Denied.
To raise troops	Granted.	Denied.
To pass a bill of attainder	Denied.	Denied.
To pass an *ex post facto* law	Denied.	Denied.
To give titles	Denied.	Denied.

The reasons for specifying these powers as granted or denied to the United States or denied to the States are:

1. To secure uniformity in legislation.
2. To prevent continual disputes between the Legislative Departments of the nation and State.
3. To prevent a State exercising a harmful power.

Various Powers denied.—A treaty is an agreement between two or more nations regarding a disputed matter. The purpose of a treaty may be:

1. To close a war.
2. To fix boundaries.
3. To settle commercial disputes, as fisheries.
4. To effect the return of escaped criminals.

An alliance is a union of several States or countries to secure some advantage to all. Alliances are generally made for commercial purposes.

A confederacy is a union of several States for the purpose of defending themselves against a common enemy.

No State can make a treaty, enter into an alliance, or form a part of a confederation. These powers are granted to the national government, but, in order to prevent needless disputes, are denied the States. A State might make a treaty with some other country and not obey its provisions; the United States consequently might become involved in a dispute with another nation because of this.

Since the United States government has the power to declare war, the right to grant letters of marque and reprisal should be in the hands of no other power. The State is denied this right.

To prevent the existence of many different kinds of coin and paper money, no State can coin money or emit bills of credit.

Emit means to issue or send out. Bills of credit are paper money.

Coin always has a real value. When there is but a small amount of gold or silver in the Treasury the value of paper money may depreciate. Instances of this are the paper money issued in Revolutionary times and during the Civil War. Paper money is better liked because of the ease with which it can be handled.

To cause money to become a legal tender is to make its

acceptance by the people compulsory, or to require them to take it in discharging a debt. During the Revolutionary period, several States compelled the people to accept Continental money, which was almost worthless. To prevent a recurrence of this no State can make anything but gold and silver coin a tender,—that is, good to offer in payment of a debt. This is because gold and silver never lose much of their value.

No bills of attainder or *ex post facto* laws can be made by the Congress of the United States, hence this power is also denied the States. Titles of nobility cannot be granted by any State.

A contract is an agreement between two or more parties to do a particular piece of work, or else to refrain from doing it. Contracts are written and signed by the parties thereto, and by witnesses. Illustration: The State wishes to erect a building, and signs a contract with a builder for its erection. In the contract, the builder agrees to construct a building in a certain manner and in a certain time, and in return the State agrees to pay a fixed sum of money. When the building is finished it is turned over to the State, and the builder in accordance with the contract receives the money for which he agreed to erect it.

Again, two men making an agreement not to establish a store within a certain distance of each other is another form of contract.

Both parties to a contract are responsible for the execution of its provisions. Failure on the part of either party to carry out the provisions of a contract may lead to a legal suit called "breach of contract."

To impair means to break, to weaken, to loosen. A law impairing the obligation of contracts would allow a party to a contract to break away from fulfilling his part of the

contract. Such a law would do away with contracts, as no one could compel a dishonest person to perform his part of the agreement.

Powers of States, Consent of Congress, when necessary.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

Duties laid by States.—Although most duties are levied by Congress, a State can lay duties on imports and exports to carry out its inspection laws. This can only be done, however, when Congress has given its consent.

Imports are goods brought into a country.

Exports are goods sent out of a country.

A State has inspection laws which provide for the examination of certain goods to test their quality, and thus protect the health and safety of the people. Articles of food are particularly inspected, as these can very easily be adulterated. Such articles are flour, butter, milk, and spices. Oil is also inspected.

To defray the expense of inspection, a small duty may be laid by the State on imported and exported goods. All inspection laws are subject to the approval of Congress. Nearly all States have inspection laws.

No State can make any profit from the inspection duty, as all surplus money raised in this manner must be given to the United States Treasury. The object of this is to secure a low tax, so as not to become burdensome to the people.

Suppose a State charges two cents a pound to examine all the butter made or brought into a State:

Number of pounds, 250,000, at 2 cents = $5000 tax.

Tax or income	$5000
Cost to inspect	4000
Surplus	$1000

This surplus of $1000 would go into the United States Treasury.

Further Restrictions on Powers of States.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

Other Powers denied.—A tonnage duty is a tax on the contents or capacity of a ship. This capacity is expressed in tons, hence the duty is called "tonnage duty." Suppose Congress laid such a duty, say one dollar a ton; a ship of one thousand tons would have to pay a tax of one thousand dollars. This is a national power, and is therefore denied to the State.

No State is permitted to keep a standing army or navy, but a militia and a naval militia system are permitted. The State soldiers cannot engage in war unless called into United States service by the President or into the State service by the Governor. They may be called in the following times:

1. When the State has been actually invaded; or,
2. When the danger is so great as to admit of no delay.

If another nation invaded our coast States it might require such a long time to convene Congress in order to declare war that immense damage could be done without

any interference. In such a case the militia can be called by the Governor to repel the invasion.

Imminent means immediate, near, impending, that which will happen soon.

SUMMARY.

1. The subjects on which Congress may make laws are mentioned in the Constitution. The subjects on which laws are not allowed to be made are also enumerated.

2. The slave-trade was not to be abolished before 1808. At that time it could be stopped or not, as Congress thought best. It was, however, abolished at the beginning of the year 1808.

3. The writ of *habeas corpus* is an important right of the people. It is an additional safeguard to their liberties. Its operation can only be stopped when a rebellion or an invasion is in progress, or when the public safety requires it.

4. Bills of attainder and *ex posto facto* laws are so unjust that their passage is entirely prohibited.

5. People are extremely sensitive to taxation. Great care is always taken in laying taxes so that no one can say they are unjust. Direct taxes are those laid directly on the people, and the only way in which they can be laid proportionally is by using the population as a basis.

6. No tax on exports from any State is permissible.

7. National money is kept by the Secretary of the Treasury. He is not allowed to use his judgment in paying out any of this money. To take any money from the Treasury it is necessary that Congress and the President should pass a bill providing for the withdrawal of certain sums. The citizens are kept informed of the financial condition of the country by a statement of the receipts and expenditures.

8. All people being equal before the law, no title or other mode of distinguishing one class of citizens from another is allowed. No office-holder is permitted to accept any gift besides his regular salary.

9. Conflicts between the United States and the States are avoided by specifying the subjects prohibited to a State. No State is allowed to make a treaty, coin money, pass a bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law, grant titles of nobility, or declare war.

QUESTIONS.

1. Enumerate the powers granted to Congress and those denied.

2. Explain why the clause relating to the importation of slaves was inserted in the Constitution.

3. What provision is made to protect citizens from improper imprisonment?

4. Define: (*a*) Bill of attainder; (*b*) *Ex post facto* law.

5. About a capitation tax, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) How it is laid.

6. Why are taxes not laid on exports?

7. Before money can be taken from the Treasury, what is necessary?

8. How do the citizens become aware of the financial condition of the country?

9. What is a title of nobility? Suppose the King of Italy wished to confer a title on the American ambassador to that country, how could the latter accept it?

10. Name five subjects upon which a State can make no laws.

11. Explain obligation of contracts.

12. Explain commerce, appropriation, receipts, expenditures, office of honor, alliance, confederation.

CHAPTER XI.

THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

Executive Department a Necessity.—After bills become laws, it is necessary that they should be obeyed. Laws are made to protect good people, to punish offenders, and to promote the peace and prosperity of the country. To have these beneficial effects they must be obeyed and executed. If no one were held responsible for disobedience to the laws they would practically become useless. A person having no respect for laws would not care whether he obeyed or disobeyed them. The Constitution provides a department for the purpose of enforcing the laws. The head of this department is the President. There are thousands of men under him who carry out the details of execution. In this manner the duties of the President are made easier, and the work of enforcing the laws becomes more perfect.

ARTICLE II.

Of the President—The Executive Power.

Sec. I. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The Executive.—Under the Articles of Confederation there was no President, and, therefore, really no Executive Department such as now exists. When the Continental Congress was in session it acted as the Executive Department. When it adjourned, a committee, composed of one man from each State, or thirteen men in all, acted for it.

It is always bad policy to divide responsibility, that is, to make many persons responsible for the performance of a duty. If the work is not carried out or faithfully performed, no one in particular can be held accountable for its non-performance. No one being responsible naturally leads to poor work. Such was the case with the Committee of States under the Articles. Where the responsibility is concentrated in the hands of a single person, blame can be easily placed for wrong or neglected actions, and praise given for right and proper ones.

When the Constitution was being formulated it was thought wise to have a separate Executive Department and a Legislative Department. To the former was given all the enforcing power.

The executive power is vested in the President. The Vice-President and members of the President's cabinet may also be considered as executive officers. These various officers form the Executive Department of the United States.

Presidential Term.—When the term of office of President and Vice-President was mentioned in the Constitutional Convention there was some dispute as to how long these officers should serve. Those who feared a monarchy suggested that a term of two or three years was sufficient. Others thought that six or seven years should be the term.

It sometimes happens that a man gains the good-will of a certain political party, and because of this popularity is

elected President. Being popular does not always carry with it the ability to govern wisely. If this person were incapable, at the end of a short term he could be refused re-election, and, therefore, the number of errors made by him would not be so numerous as if the term were six years. A short term might not be long enough for a capable man, but there would be no objection to this, as he could be readily re-elected for a second term.

Some months before each Presidential election the business world is somewhat unsettled because of fear of changes in laws which might be made by the successful political party. If the term be a short one, this condition of business would occur more frequently than if the term were longer. However, a better government is of more importance than the question of business, and a short term is probably better than a very long one.

As a compromise between the two- and six-year terms, the Convention made the term of office four years.

Although there is no provision in the Constitution to prevent a man from serving three terms as President, no one has ever held the office for a third term. The reason for a President serving but two terms may be justly attributed to George Washington. He was offered the nomination for a third term, but refused to accept it, saying that two terms were enough for any man to serve as President. He established this precedent, and his successors, excepting Grant, who desired a third term, have followed his wise example.

Many Presidents have been elected to serve two terms, making their official service a period of eight years.

Since 1789 we have had twenty-six Presidents, of whom nine have been elected to serve two terms. They are:

1. George Washington, Virginia, 1789–1797.
2. Thomas Jefferson, Virginia, 1801–1809.

3. James Madison, Virginia, 1809–1817.
4. James Monroe, Virginia, 1817–1825.
5. Andrew Jackson, Tennessee, 1829–1837.
6. Abraham Lincoln, Illinois, 1861–1865. (Assassinated at the beginning of second term.)
7. Ulysses S. Grant, Illinois, 1869–1877.
8. Grover Cleveland, New York, 1885–1889 and 1893–1897.
9. William McKinley, Ohio, 1897–1901. (Assassinated at the beginning of second term.)

There are several prosperous republics in different parts of the world, and although they are not like the United States, still it may be interesting to know the terms of office of their Presidents.

FRANCE.—President elected for seven years.
MEXICO.—President elected for six years.
SWITZERLAND.—President elected for one year.

Presidential Electors.—An elector is a citizen who is allowed to vote for the different officers. A Presidential elector is a citizen who is selected by his fellow-citizens to choose a President and Vice-President.

Voters do not vote directly for President. They vote for a set of men termed electors. These electors, in turn, vote for President and Vice-President.

Every State does not have the same power in electing the President and Vice-President. If each State had the same power in selecting the President, population would not be considered, and the citizens would not be directly represented in the choice. If each State had the right to cast one vote, a citizen residing in a State having an immense population would have a smaller part of this one vote than a citizen residing in a State of small population, and also casting one vote. This would be very unequal power. To avoid this, the power of each State in the selection of Presi-

dent is reckoned according to the number of people residing in that State. This places in the people the same proportion of power in the executive branch of the government that they have in the legislative branch.

New York has many more inhabitants than Florida. To obtain a proper division of power the State of New York is given more votes than Florida. This power is secured by the method suggested in the clause. Each State has two Senators and a certain number of Representatives, apportioned according to its population. The number of Senators and Representatives of a State are added, and the sum is the number of Presidential electors to which the State is entitled.

Territories have no electors.

In early times the States appointed the electors, but this method has gone out of use. At the present time, every political party nominates the required number of Presidential electors. For instance, in New Jersey the Republicans nominate twelve Republican electors, the Democrats nominate the same number. Only twelve electors can be chosen, because that is the number to which New Jersey is entitled, so that the party which receives the most votes secures the twelve Presidential electors.

As no two States have the same population, the number of electors assigned to each State may vary. The number of electors, therefore, nominated by political parties is not necessarily the same in all the States.

Who may be Electors.—Any citizen of a State can be an elector, with these exceptions:

1. A Senator or Representative.
2. A person who has a position under the United States government.

States.	Senators.	Representatives.	Electors.
Alabama	2	9	11
Arkansas	2	7	9
California	2	8	10
Colorado	2	3	5
Connecticut	2	5	7
Delaware	2	1	3
Florida	2	3	5
Georgia	2	11	13
Idaho	2	1	3
Illinois	2	25	27
Indiana	2	13	15
Iowa	2	11	13
Kansas	2	8	10
Kentucky	2	11	13
Louisiana	2	7	9
Maine	2	4	6
Maryland	2	6	8
Massachusetts	2	14	16
Michigan	2	12	14
Minnesota	2	9	11
Mississippi	2	8	10
Missouri	2	16	18
Montana	2	1	3
Nebraska	2	6	8
Nevada	2	1	3
New Hampshire	2	2	4
New Jersey	2	10	12
New York	2	37	39
North Carolina	2	10	12
North Dakota	2	2	4
Ohio	2	21	23
Oklahoma	2	5	7
Oregon	2	2	4
Pennsylvania	2	32	34
Rhode Island	2	2	4
South Carolina	2	7	9
South Dakota	2	2	4
Tennessee	2	10	12
Texas	2	16	18
Utah	2	1	3
Vermont	2	2	4
Virginia	2	10	12
Washington	2	3	5
West Virginia	2	5	7
Wisconsin	2	11	13
Wyoming	2	1	3
Total	92	391	483

It is against republican principles to have one person hold two offices. A person who held a position under the government, if an elector, might be tempted to vote for a President who, in return, would keep him in office. Many office-holders are dismissed when a new President is elected.

Presidential electors receive no salary, the office being one of trust and honor.

Nomination and Election of Electors.—As the time approaches for the election of a new President, each party holds a separate national convention for the purpose of selecting candidates. In each State, also, every political party, by convention, names its Presidential electors.

Before the Presidential election every political party has accomplished two important things:

1. It has nominated candidates for President and Vice-President.
2. It has nominated Presidential electors in each of the States.

On a certain day the people of all the States vote for Presidential electors. The electors receiving the highest number of votes in each State are declared elected. Let us take an election in Delaware as an example. This State is entitled to three electors. The following are the nominees:

Republican Electors.	Democratic Electors.	Prohibition Electors.
J. W. White.	A. P. Smith.	F. R. Stretch.
H. C. Black.	T. W. Jones.	M. T. Logan.
R. A. Green.	J. M. Holland.	C. G. Reed.

Republican electors stand for republican principles, the Democrats for democratic principles, and the Prohibitionists for prohibition principles.

Any citizen of Delaware who believed in the principles of a certain party would naturally cast his vote for the electors of that party.

Probable Result of an Election in Delaware.

1. Republican	18,000
2. Democratic	15,000
3. Prohibition	400

The Republican electors having received the most votes, they are declared elected. The votes of these three electors go to the Republican candidate for President. It is the same in all the States of the Union.

Original Method of electing the President.

3. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-Presi-

dent. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.

Former Mode of choosing a President.—This clause contains the method of electing a President and Vice-President in vogue until the year 1804. It was found to be a faulty method. In the election of 1800 Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr each had seventy-three votes. This being a tie, the election in accordance with the provision of this clause had to be decided by the House of Representatives, which elected Jefferson. This produced bitter feeling, and led to the adoption of the Twelfth Amendment, in 1804, which is the present system or method of electing a President.

ARTICLE XII.

Present Mode of choosing the President and Vice-President.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the Presi-

dent, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Meeting of the Electors.—After the electors of each State have been chosen they meet in their respective States, generally at the State capital. They proceed to vote by ballot, first for President, then, in a separate ballot, for Vice-President.

The clause, "one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves," means that if a candidate for President come from Ohio the electors from that State can vote for him, but if the candidate for Vice-President also reside in Ohio they must vote for one from another State. The object of this provision is to prevent the President and Vice-President coming from the same State, as that would probably give such State too much power.

Ballots are taken for President and Vice-President. Then the electors are required to make a list of all persons who received votes for President, and also the number of votes

each received. Another, but separate, list is made of all those who were voted for as Vice-President and the number of votes received by each of them. The Presidential list and the Vice-Presidential list when taken together may be called a certificate.

Three certificates are made, and as each contains two lists there are six lists altogether. These lists must be signed, certified, and sealed. Three certificates are made to insure the safe arrival in Washington of at least one. The first is sent by a messenger, the second by mail, and the third is given to a judge of a United States court situated in the district where the capital of a State is located. After being sealed, the envelopes containing the certificates are directed to the President of the Senate, who is either the Vice-President or president *pro tempore*. If the messenger should meet with some accident, thereby preventing the certificate he has from reaching Washington, and the certificate sent by mail should be lost, the third certificate could still be obtained from the judge.

Counting the Votes.—This is the only occasion when both houses meet in the same room. The President of the Senate presides. The certificates from all the States are taken out, and the votes counted. The lists are separated into sets,—viz., those for:

1. President.
2. Vice-President.

The person having a majority of all the electoral votes for President is declared elected. The one having a majority of all the electoral votes for Vice-President is declared elected.

Electoral votes	476
Majority	239

Election by the House.—If no person have a majority of all the votes of the electors, the House of Representatives chooses the President. The House is given this privilege because it directly represents the people, and its choice would likely be more satisfactory than the choice of the Senate.

If there are five men voted for as President, only the three highest can be voted for by the House, the other two are not considered. The voting is by States, each State having one vote. The vote of each State is determined by its own Representatives. Pennsylvania has thirty-two Representatives, who are entitled to one vote. How shall this be cast? According to how the majority direct. If of the thirty-two twenty are Republicans, the vote would therefore be cast for the Republican candidate for President. If there should be an equal division among a State's members, it would lose its vote. In the election of 1800, two States lost their votes because of equal division among their members.

It requires two-thirds ($\frac{2}{3}$) of all the States to be represented in order to have a quorum so that a President may be elected. A majority of all the States is necessary to elect.

Failure of the House to elect.—Should the House fail to elect a President before the 4th of March, the Vice-President, if elected, becomes President in the same manner as if the President had resigned or died.

Inaugural Date.—March 4, 1789, was selected as the day when the new government was to begin. It was not until

April 6, 1789, that a sufficient number of members of Congress had arrived in New York to form a quorum to count the electoral vote. Until this was accomplished the President could not be inaugurated. After the votes were counted, Washington was notified, and he came to New York, where he took the oath of office on the thirtieth day of April, 1789. Since then every President has been inaugurated on March 4, excepting when such date has fallen on Sunday. This occurred three times,—namely, in 1821, 1849, and 1877. When March 4 occurs on Sunday the inauguration of the President is postponed until the following day.

Presidents elected by the House.—In 1800 Thomas Jefferson was elected by the House over Aaron Burr. In 1824 John Quincy Adams was elected by the House over Andrew Jackson.

The Electoral Commission.—The election of 1876 was very close, being a choice between Hayes and Tilden. South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana each transmitted two sets of certificates to Washington. When Congress met it could not decide which of the two certificates to accept. The election did not go to the House because one of the two candidates had a majority. After much disputing, it was decided to leave the matter in the hands of an Electoral Commission, composed of five Senators, five Representatives, and five judges of the United States Supreme Court.

The Commission was composed of an odd number (15) to avoid a tie vote. This Commission decided on March 2, 1877, that Hayes was elected. Had the Commission held out two days longer, the country would have been without a President until some method to elect one had been provided.

Election of President

1. By electors
   1. Nomination of candidates.
   2. Nomination in each State of Presidential electors.
   3. Election day.
   4. Meeting of electors at capital of State.
   5. Congress meets to count the vote.
   6. Majority of all the electors vote for one man, and he is elected.

2. By House of Representatives
   1. Nomination of candidates.
   2. Nomination in each State of Presidential electors.
   3. Election day.
   4. Meeting of electors at capital of State.
   5. Meeting of Congress to count the vote.
   6. No candidate has a majority.
   7. House of Representatives proceeds to elect a President.
   8. Vote taken by States; quorum, two-thirds of all States.
   9. Three highest candidates to be chosen from.
   10. Majority of all States necessary to a choice.

Election of Vice-President.—Inasmuch as the Vice-President under certain conditions may become President, it is necessary that he be elected in the same manner as the President,—namely, by a majority of the Presidential electors. The electors in voting make distinct lists of the candidates voted for as Vice-President. These lists are also sent to Washington, and are counted separately from those for President.

When no candidate has a majority of the votes of the electors, the Senate has the power to elect the Vice-President. This is so because the office is of less importance

than the office of President, and it would also, if given to the House to decide, give that body too much power. It is also safer, as it might easily happen that neither candidate would have a majority. If the House had the power to elect both it might disagree, and not elect either a President or a Vice-President before the fourth day of March, thus leaving the country without an executive.

In the Senate the vote is not taken by States, because there being but two men there might be many disagreements as to how the vote of a State should be cast. A quorum consists of two-thirds of the entire membership of the Senate. They select from the two highest on the list, and a majority of all is necessary to a choice.

States, 45. Senators, 90. Quorum, 60. Necessary to elect, 46.

In our entire history, the Senate has had but one opportunity to exercise this power. In 1837 Richard M. Johnson was elected Vice-President by the Senate.

- **Election of Vice-President**
  - 1. By electors . Majority of all electors.
  - 2. By Senate.
    1. No majority.
    2. Two highest on the list.
    3. Quorum, two-thirds of all Senators.
    4. Each Senator one vote.
    5. Majority of all Senators necessary to elect.

The Electoral College.—The Presidential electors of all the States taken together are known as the "Electoral College." The Electoral College increases as the population becomes larger and as the number of States increases.

Electoral College of	Number of Members.
1789	91
1908	483

George Washington was the only President who ever received the votes of all the electors. President Monroe received all but one.

COMPARISON OF ELECTION BY THE HOUSE AND SENATE.

Election of	To choose from	Vote by	Quorum.	Necessary to a Choice.
President by House.	Three highest on list.	States.	Two-thirds of all States.	Majority of all States.
Vice-President by Senate.	Two highest on list.	Senators.	Two-thirds of all Senators.	Majority of all Senators.

Minority and Majority Presidents.—The vote for President in 1892 was:

Nominees.	Popular Vote.	Electoral Vote.
Cleveland	5,556,583	277
Harrison	5,175,577	145
Weaver	1,122,045	22
Bidwell	279,191	0
Total	12,133,346	444

The entire electoral vote was four hundred and forty-four, of which a majority was two hundred and twenty-

three. Cleveland received two hundred and seventy-seven electoral votes and was declared elected. The popular vote is the vote of the citizens. This vote was over twelve millions, and a majority would have been a little over six millions, yet the candidate who had a majority of the electoral votes had less, or a minority of the popular vote. Such a President is called a "minority President." A minority President is one who receives a majority of the Electoral College votes, but a minority of the popular vote.

Such Presidents have been numerous. John Quincy Adams, James K. Polk, Abraham Lincoln, Rutherford B. Hayes, James A. Garfield, Grover Cleveland, and Benjamin Harrison were minority Presidents.

In 1896 the vote was:

Nominees.	Popular Vote.	Electoral Vote.
McKinley	7,107,304	271
Bryan	6,292,423	176
Levering	130,753	0
Total	13,530,480	447
Majority	6,765,241	224

Presidents elected by a majority of the popular vote and of the electoral votes are called "majority Presidents." McKinley had a majority of the popular vote and also of the electors, hence he is termed a "majority President."

Time of choosing Electors—When they are to vote.

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

Time of Election.—This clause gives the power to Congress to fix the dates on which elections shall be held. The object of this is to have all the States hold elections at the same time, so as to prevent needless confusion. This power has been exercised, and Congress has fixed:

1. The Tuesday after the first Monday in November as the day for choosing the Presidential electors.
2. The second Monday in January as the day on which the electors meet at the capitals of their respective States.
3. The second Wednesday in February as the day on which the certificates are opened and counted before Congress.

The President and Vice-President are not officially elected till the second Wednesday in February. The way in which the electors will vote is known to every one; hence, on the evening of election day, when the returns are read, it is known who will be elected.

Who may be elected.

5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

Qualifications of President.—

1. He must be a natural-born citizen.
2. Thirty-five years of age.
3. Fourteen years a resident within the United States.

A natural-born citizen is a person who is born here or a person who is born abroad while his parents, who are citi-

zens of the United States, are absent from this country on pleasure or on business.

During the dark period of our history, many foreigners came to America to help the struggling patriots. In consideration of their services it was desired to pay these men a compliment by making them eligible to the highest office in the land. Such men as Hamilton, Lafayette, Steuben, Kosciusko, De Kalb, and others fought on our side without hope of reward. As a compliment to such men, the part, "a citizen at the time of the adoption of this Constitution," was inserted, making them eligible to this office. As these men have since died, this part is useless, and only native-born citizens can become President and Vice-President.

Thirty-five years is the requisite age for the office of President, being the highest age required for any office. It is thought that a man of thirty-five reaches, as a rule, his best intellectual ability. In a monarchy, where the sovereign inherits the throne, no age can be fixed. Children become kings and queens. Victoria became Queen of England when but seventeen years of age. These children are rulers only in name. They do not possess the real power of king or queen. In such cases a person termed a "regent" fulfils the powers of ruler until the youth reaches the necessary age, generally twenty-one years.

A candidate for the Presidency must be fourteen years a resident within the United States. Citizens who are away from their country for a long period are likely to become friendly to the government of their adopted country. Such a one is also likely to become indifferent to the main events of recent history in his native country. To guard against such a person being elected, the Constitution requires a continuous residence in this country of fourteen

years. This provision affords opportunity to become acquainted with the workings of the government. Exceptions to this are persons who serve as ambassadors, ministers, consuls, and those travelling abroad for short periods.

COMPARISON OF QUALIFICATIONS.

Office.	Age.	Length of Citizenship.
Representative	25 years.	7 years.
Senator	30 years.	9 years.
President	35 years.	Native born.

Qualifications of Vice-President.—As the Vice-President may succeed the President, it is necessary that he should possess the same qualifications. The Constitution has provided that "no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States."

In Case of Removal of the President, his Powers to devolve upon the Vice-President.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

Presidential Vacancies.—The Vice-President is President of the Senate, but as this office can be easily filled by

one of the Senators, it would appear that the Vice-President is really useless in the management of the government. His main office is to succeed the President when the latter dies, resigns, or is impeached. This is a very good arrangement, as it would take a long time to elect a successor, while by this system the Vice-President is made President a few hours after that office becomes vacant. It is a very serious thing to allow a country to be without a head even for a short time, as much mischief could be done by persons discontented with the government.

Vice-Presidents who have become Presidents:

1. John Tyler, on death of William H. Harrison . . . 1841.
2. Millard Fillmore, on death of Zachary Taylor. . . . 1850.
3. Andrew Johnson, on death of Abraham Lincoln . . 1865.
4. Chester A. Arthur, on death of James A. Garfield. . 1881.
5. Theodore Roosevelt, on death of William McKinley . 1901.

When the Vice-President succeeds the President the country is without a Vice-President. No one is elected to fill this office, as it is not very important, and the president *pro tempore* can perform the Vice-President's duties in the Senate. When the Vice-President dies no one succeeds to the office, and the vacancy is allowed to continue for the remainder of the term. Since the beginning of the government, in no administration have there been vacancies in both offices.

Presidential Succession.—Congress further has the power to say who shall become President when the Presidential and Vice-Presidential offices both become vacant. In 1791 a law was enacted to meet such an emergency. It provided that in such an event the president *pro tempore*

or the Speaker of the House would become President. This would be very wrong, because either of these might be of a different party, and hence the people who elected a man of one party might be represented by a person of an opposite party.

In 1886 a law was made fixing the order of succession to the Presidency. It was called the "Presidential Succession Law." By this, when both President and Vice-President are incapable, the members of the cabinet succeed in the order in which the offices were originally created, viz.:

1. Secretary of State.
2. Secretary of Treasury.
3. Secretary of War.
4. Attorney-General.
5. Postmaster-General.
6. Secretary of the Navy.
7. Secretary of the Interior.
8. Secretary of Agriculture.

The members of a cabinet are of the same political party as the President, hence, when any one of these succeeds, the right party is still representing the people. These men are also familiar with the purposes of the administration, and could carry them out without mistake or delay. If any cabinet officer does not possess the qualifications of President he is passed by, and the next one in order succeeds to the position.

When a Vice-President or cabinet officer becomes President, he receives the salary of this office and ceases to hold his old office.

In the republic of France there is no Vice-President. When President Faure died, in 1899, the Legislature of France was called together and M. Loubet was chosen.

President's Compensation.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Salary of the President.—For performing the duties of his office the President should receive some salary or compensation. We frequently find very bright men among people who are not wealthy. If there were no salary attached to this office men of this kind would be kept out. From 1789 to 1873 the salary of the President was twenty-five thousand dollars a year. After 1873 it was increased to fifty thousand dollars a year. Grant was the first President to receive the increase. In 1907, the salary of the Vice-President was increased from eight thousand to twelve thousand dollars.

No increase or decrease can be made in the salary of a President during his term. If such a bill were passed he could easily sign it if it were to increase his salary, and if it proposed a decrease in his salary he could just as readily veto it. If Congress were allowed to decrease the salary of a President it might use it as a means to force him out of his position. Again, a dishonest man might make many promises of offices to Congressmen in return for an increase of salary.

During the time for which a President is elected he can receive no gift or emolument from the United States or from any State. The object of this is to prevent any one from influencing the President in any of his actions. He may, however, accept a present from any private citizen. Every President receives many gifts from people in different parts of the country.

In comparison with the rulers of other nations, our President's salary is very small.

Title of Office.	Salary.
President of United States	$50,000
King of England	4,000,000
Emperor of Austria	4,650,000
King of Belgium	760,000
President of Mexico	50,005
President of France	120,000

His Oath.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

President's Oath or Affirmation.—To make the President responsible for the conduct of his office, he must, at the beginning of his term, take either an oath or an affirmation. An oath or an affirmation both have the same effect; but persons have different views on this subject, and thus a choice is provided. An oath is a declaration or promise to act properly. When taking an oath the Bible is used, thus making the occasion more solemn. An affirmation is a declaration or promise to act properly. Such promise is made without the use of the Bible.

The oath of office is given to the President by the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court on inauguration day. This day is the 4th of March of every fourth year. After the oath has been taken the President gen-

erally makes an address to the assembled people. It is on this occasion that he outlines his policy by giving his views upon important questions.

The Vice-President takes the oath of office in the presence of the Senate on the same day as the President,—*i.e.*, 4th of March. His oath is the same, with the change that he promises to execute the office of Vice-President instead of that of President.

Power and Duties of the President.

Sec. II. 1. The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the Executive Departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

President as Commander.—The President, by virtue of his office, is commander-in-chief of the regular army and navy, and also of the militia of the States when it is called into actual service. If Congress had control of the army and navy it would require too much time for it to decide on every movement that should be made. Secrecy could not well be maintained in such a large body, and disputes might be the cause of lost opportunities. As the President executes the laws, and the army and navy help him in this, he should have charge of their direction.

By this clause it is not meant that the President should actually go to the field of battle, but that he can direct the operations of the commanders while he remains in the Capitol. If he were compelled to take the field he might be killed, and thus the office might be changing hands con-

tinually. During the entire Civil War Lincoln was never far away from the city of Washington.

Cabinet Officers.—The business of the government is very extensive, and cannot be performed alone by the President, hence the business is divided into nine main parts, each being under the direction of a cabinet officer and his assistants. Each part has different work to do. A cabinet officer is one who advises the President, and performs part of the work of conducting the business of the government.

1. Secretary of State, established 1789.
2. Secretary of the Treasury, established 1789.
3. Secretary of War, established 1789.
4. Attorney-General, established 1789.
5. Secretary of the Navy, established 1798.
6. Postmaster-General, established 1829.
7. Secretary of the Interior, established 1849.
8. Secretary of Agriculture, established 1888.
9. Secretary of Commerce and Labor, established 1903.

The office of Postmaster-General was an old one, but the occupant only became a cabinet officer in 1829.

The cabinet officers are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. They are of the same political party as the President. They serve for no fixed term, but may be removed at any time by the President. The salary of each cabinet officer is twelve thousand dollars a year.

The State Department deals with foreign matters. It instructs the ambassadors, ministers, and consuls. All commissions for office are issued by this department. It preserves all bills which have become laws. It grants passports, insuring safety, to citizens who desire to travel abroad.

The Treasury Department takes care of all moneys. It receives money from taxes, and pays out money in accord-

ance with the appropriations made by Congress. It conducts the collection of duties and customs by means of agents throughout the country. The mints are under the control of this department, as are also the following:

1. Life-Saving Service.
2. Light-Houses.
3. Coast Survey.

The Department of War has general charge of the arming and organizing of the army and the appointment of officers, and of the Military Academy at West Point. It has charge and care of the national cemeteries.

The Navy Department has general charge of the navy. The Naval Academy at Annapolis is under its care. It has general charge of navy-yards, arsenals, and forts, and under its supervision war-ships are constructed. It also issues maps and charts relating to navigation.

The Post-Office Department has charge of establishing post-offices, superintends the working of the department, and makes contracts for carrying the mail.

The Department of the Interior has charge of the public lands, Territories, Indian affairs, pensions, patents, copyrights, and the taking of the census.

The Attorney-General gives advice to the government on legal questions. He defends the United States when any question involving it is concerned.

The Department of Agriculture endeavors to improve the agricultural interests of the country. It purchases and distributes seeds of various kinds. It also publishes new and improved methods of agriculture. Experimental stations are located in various States. Here experiments with plants are made, with the object of obtaining better prod-

ucts. Any improved methods being discovered, the results are printed and sent free of charge to farmers.

The Department of Commerce and Labor fosters, promotes, and develops the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishing industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States.

Reprieves and Pardons.—A reprieve is a suspension of the sentence of a court for a short time. A person might be sentenced to death, and new evidence, which might prove him innocent, might be found. Without the power of reprieve nothing could be done to prevent the execution of the punishment. A reprieve simply postpones the execution of a sentence. When the time of the reprieve expires the sentence of the court is carried out.

A pardon is an absolute release from prison of any one convicted of crime. When any one receives a pardon such person is again free, and cannot be retried for the same offence.

The object of reprieves and pardons is to have a means of securing justice to a convicted innocent person. A person may be convicted of some crime. After serving some time in prison it is discovered that he is guiltless. He should be released, and this release could only be accomplished by means of a pardon. The President has this power only in United States matters, such as counterfeiting, smuggling, robbing the mails, etc. In offences against State laws he has no power. There is but one exception to the use of this pardoning power by the President, and that is where a person has been impeached and found guilty.

General William Hull was an officer for the Americans during the Revolution. During the War of 1812 he was placed in command of another force. He was located with

his troops at Detroit. The British besieged the place, and Hull, without any attempt at defence, surrendered the place to the enemy. Much dissatisfaction was caused by this action. Hull was tried by court-martial, convicted of cowardice, and sentenced to be shot. President Madison, using his power as commander-in-chief of the army, pardoned him. The pardon was granted in consideration of the many good services he had rendered during the Revolutionary War.

President may, with Concurrence of Senate, make Treaties, appoint Ambassadors, etc.—Authority of Congress over Appointment of Inferior Officers.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Treaties.—An agreement between two or more countries on any subject which concerns them is called a Treaty. Treaties generally relate to:

1. The settlement of a war.
2. Fisheries.
3. Boundaries.
4. Exchange of fugitives from justice.
5. Commerce.

Method of making a Treaty.—Whenever there is need of a treaty commissioners are appointed by the countries concerned. In the United States these commissioners are

appointed by the President. They meet at a certain place to discuss the matter which they are to consider, and make a written treaty. The work of the commissioners is then over. They take the treaty to the countries from which they came. Before the treaty can go into effect it must be ratified by all the countries concerned. In the United States a treaty needs to be ratified by the Senate only. This is because Senators are men of higher qualifications and a treaty is more of a national matter, and concerns the States more than the people. The Senate, being a smaller body than the House, can discuss a treaty more fully and at the same time with more secrecy. As a treaty is a very important measure, two-thirds of the Senators present, provided such number be a quorum, must vote for it before it can be ratified. After a treaty is ratified by the Senate it is preserved by the Secretary of State. When a treaty is ratified by all the countries concerned it is a law of these countries, and must be obeyed by the citizens of each.

Treaties of the United States

1. With England, signed at Paris, 1783.
2. Jay's Treaty, with England, 1795.
3. With England, signed at Ghent, 1814.
4. With Spain, cession of Florida, 1819.
5. With England, 1842, northeast boundary.
6. With England, 1846, northwest boundary.
7. With Mexico, 1848.
8. With Japan, 1854.
9. With England, 1871.
10. With Spain, 1899.

The treaty with England in 1783 ended the Revolutionary War. The independence of the United States was acknowledged and the following boundaries fixed: the Atlantic Ocean on the east, the Mississippi on the west, Florida on the south, and the Great Lakes and Canada on the north.

Jay's Treaty provided for a more thorough method of carrying out the provisions of the Treaty of 1783. The treaty made by Jay in 1795 was very unpopular in the United States. Many people believed that England received greater advantages from the questions involved than did the United States. President Washington, however, thought that it was the best that could be secured at that time. It was ratified by the Senate after violent opposition.

The third treaty with England, in 1814, ended the second war with that country. This war put an end to the searching of our ships at sea by Great Britain.

The Treaty of 1842 was made by Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton. It is sometimes known as the "Ashburton Treaty." It fixed the present boundary between Maine and Canada.

The Treaty of 1846 dealt with the northwest boundary dispute between our country and Great Britain. The land in dispute was so little known at the beginning of the nineteenth century that no one talked very much about it. A few explorers, however, brought back such glowing accounts of its richness that it soon began to be populated. England laid claim to it, and for some years we were on the verge of another war with that nation. When Polk was nominated for the Presidency the cry of our people was, "54–40, or fight;" meaning that our territory extended to 54° 40′ north latitude. Our claim was based on:

1. The explorations of Lewis and Clark, sent out by President Jefferson.
2. Dr. Whitman's journey there.

The difficulty was finally adjusted by a treaty between the two countries, in which the boundary was fixed at the forty-

ninth parallel. This gave a share of the disputed territory to each country.

The treaty with Mexico in 1848 ended the war with that country. The following were the results of that treaty:

1. The boundary of Texas was fixed at the Rio Grande.
2. The independence of Texas was acknowledged.
3. Mexico received fifteen million dollars for the cession of California and New Mexico.

The treaty with Japan, made through the efforts of Commodore Perry, opened the ports of that country to American commerce in 1854.

No treaty was made at the close of the Civil War because the South had no recognized standing as a nation, and hence could not make one.

Treaty of Washington.—For some years previous to 1871 there were several questions in dispute between Great Britain and the United States. These at one time almost led to hostilities. President Grant avoided this trouble by suggesting the appointment of commissioners by each country to arrange a treaty. These men met in Washington in 1871, and the treaty has since been called the "Treaty of Washington." It provided for the settlement of:

1. The Alabama claims.
2. The fisheries dispute.
3. The northwest boundary.

The Alabama claims were settled by commissioners from England, United States, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. A majority of these men were to decide the question. They met at Geneva, Switzerland. In 1872 the decision was announced, awarding to the United States fifteen million five

hundred thousand dollars for damages to American commerce by various Confederate privateers which were fitted out in England while the Civil War was in progress. This money did not go into the United States Treasury, but was divided among the ship-owners whose vessels were either destroyed or captured by these privateers.

The Fisheries Commission met at Halifax, Nova Scotia, and awarded England five million five hundred thousand dollars damages. The English claimed that the Americans were using the Canadian fishing-banks to the detriment of the Canadians.

The boundary dispute was in reference to the limit of authority on the waters northwest of Washington State and south of Vancouver Island. Emperor William of Germany was appointed to decide this dispute. He drew the present boundary, and gave to the State of Washington the Island of San Juan. This decision did not give either country a large tract of land. Its importance was in fixing the jurisdiction between two countries. Heretofore this section was under no particular authority, and criminals by taking refuge here could impede justice.

The treaty with Spain was ratified in 1899. It ended the Spanish-American War, and provided for the following:

1. The cession of Porto Rico, Sulu Islands, Guam of the Ladrones, and the Philippine Islands to the United States.

2. The relinquishment of all authority over Cuba. This country being placed under the jurisdiction of the United States until the Cubans show themselves capable of self-government.

3. The payment by the United States to Spain of twenty million dollars for the government buildings and other improvements in the Philippines.

Appointments.—The men who hold the highest offices under the government are appointed by the President; but his appointments must be confirmed by a majority of the Senate before the persons appointed can assume control of such offices. Confirming a man for a position means that the consent of the Senate must be obtained before he is properly qualified. Incapable and improper men are thus prevented from occupying positions of honor, trust, and profit. When the Senate refuses to give its consent to the nomination of a man another nominee must be selected or nominated by the President. Among officers whose nominations must be sent to the Senate for confirmation are:

1. Ambassadors.
2. Public ministers.
3. Consuls.
4. Judges of the Supreme Court.
5. Other subordinate officers not mentioned in the Constitution.

Ambassadors, Ministers, Consuls.—To look after the interests of American citizens, commerce, etc., three kinds of representatives of the United States are sent to the different countries and cities of the world. An ambassador is a representative of the highest rank sent from one country to another. A minister is a representative of a country to another country whose importance is not so great. Both the ambassadors and ministers reside at the capital of the country to which they are sent. There are at this time ambassadors to:

1. Great Britain.
2. France.
3. Germany.
4. Italy.
5. Russia.
6. Mexico.
7. Japan.
8. Brazil.
9. Turkey.

A consul is a representative to a commercial or manufacturing city. While ambassadors and ministers are sent to the different countries, a consul is sent only to a city. Consuls look particularly after the commercial side, endeavoring to find opportunities for the introduction and extension of American products. They also examine the invoices of the cargoes of ships to ascertain whether a correct statement has been made. They assist Americans abroad in various ways.

Ambassadors, ministers, and consuls have no fixed tenure of office. It seldom lasts longer than four years, but when the same political party remains in office for a second term, the representatives generally remain throughout the entire term. It is only when the administration changes that other representatives are sent.

Appointment of Other Officers.—Many other officers must be confirmed by the Senate. When the Constitution was adopted it was not known just what officers would be needed in the future. Not being able to foretell this, and wishing the Senate to have some power over their appointments, this statement was inserted, "and all other officers whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for by law." Among such officers, whose positions have been established by law, are:

1. Cabinet officers.
2. Postmasters.
3. Collectors of customs.
4. Judges of the District and Circuit Courts.
5. United States District Attorneys.
6. Directors of the mints.
7. Officers in the army and navy.
8. Commissioner of Immigration.
9. Governors of Territories.

This confirmation should only be required in the higher offices. It would keep the Senate very busy to confirm the nomination of every clerk, watchman, book-keeper, and letter-carrier in the United States. All of these occupy inferior positions, and the President and Senate should not be troubled with their selection and confirmation. The Constitution wisely says that minor officers may be appointed by the chief officers under whom they are to serve without the confirmation of the Senate. For instance, the judges of the courts appoint their workers, and the heads of the departments, meaning thereby the cabinet officers, appoint the inferior officers in their departments.

Although the consent of the Senate is necessary in some cases to secure an office, yet whenever the President becomes dissatisfied with the action of any of the occupants of these offices he may remove him without the consent of that body. This was different at one time. During President Johnson's administration a law was enacted, known as the "Tenure of Office Act," which forbade the President to remove any one from office without the consent of the Senate. Johnson, however, violated this law by removing the Secretary of War, E. M. Stanton. This was the direct cause of his impeachment. He was acquitted. This act was repealed in 1887, so that now the President may remove any one with whom he is dissatisfied.

President may fill Vacancies in Office during Recess of Senate.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Power of the President to fill Vacancies.—A commission is a paper signed by the President and given to a per-

son who is appointed to an office. It shows that the person holding it is properly authorized to perform the duties of that particular office. When the Senate is in session many officers must be confirmed before they can receive their commissions. If a vacancy happen while the Senate is in session, another person is immediately selected by the President, and his nomination is acted upon by the Senate.

During the recess or adjournment of the Senate many vacancies occur. If these could not be filled because the Senate was not in session, important work of the government might be left undone. To call the Senate together in extra session for the single purpose of ratifying a nomination would be too expensive. The President in such cases may issue commissions to persons without the consent of the Senate. These commissions, however, last only till the end of the next session of the Senate. The commission granted by the President is only temporary. When the Senate meets in regular session it becomes the President's duty to send in another nomination, which, if confirmed, would be for the regular term of office.

The Senate at the opening of each session is occupied with much important business. If the President's commissions expired at the beginning of the session the work would be much increased. To avoid this, these commissions expire at the end of the session. Again, the Senate might refuse to confirm the nominations sent by the President. If the commissions granted by the President were to expire at the beginning of the session the offices might be vacant during the entire time that the Senate was in session, because of its failure to confirm the nominee. Hence the commissions last until the end of the session.

Appointments to which the approval of the Senate is

necessary are here meant. Appointments vested in the heads of departments and courts of law may be made at any time without further action.

Further Powers and Duties.

Sec. III. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and, in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Different Duties of the President.—"He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union." The President does this by means of communications, either oral or written. These communications are called "messages." Washington and John Adams read their messages to Congress, but, beginning with Jefferson, all the Presidents since that time have sent written communications to both houses.

When the country is in a bad condition it may be necessary to send frequent messages, while in times of prosperity but few are sent. Congressmen do not know everything which occurs in conducting the government, and the messages which are sent give them information so that they can act wisely on the recommendations of the President.

Extraordinary Sessions.—Congress meets every year in regular session. This session seldom lasts more than six months. When their business is finished they adjourn. Various things might happen during the recess which would

require the immediate attention of Congress. In such urgent cases the President has the power to call an extraordinary session. This he does by proclamation.

If but one house is needed to transact the necessary business, that house only is assembled; but for the making of laws both houses are convened. Thus, to elect a President when the electors have failed would require the House of Representatives, while to elect a Vice-President or to ratify a treaty the Senate only would be required.

Some instances of these extraordinary sessions occurred in the following administrations:

John Adams (1797–1801), French affairs, 1797.
James Madison (1809–1817), English affairs, 1809.
Martin Van Buren (1837–1841), panic of 1837.
Harrison and Tyler (1841–1845), finance and revenue, 1841.
Abraham Lincoln (1861–1865), secession, 1861.
Rutherford B. Hayes (1877–1881), to appropriate for the army, 1879.
Grover Cleveland (1893–1897), panic of 1893.
William McKinley (1897–1901), finance and revenue, 1897.

When Congress cannot agree on a date for adjournment the President may interfere and name the date.

The President receives the visits of all representatives of foreign countries. When an ambassador from a foreign country arrives he is taken by the Secretary of State and introduced to the President.

One of the most important duties of the President is to see that the laws of the country are executed. This is accomplished by the various officers under the government, the President doing only the directing.

The laws of the United States are:

1. The Constitution.
2. All bills which have become laws since 1789.
3. All treaties which have been made since 1789.

Duties and Powers of the President of the United States.

1. Commander-in-chief of army and navy, and of the militia in time of war.
2. May require opinions of cabinet officers.
3. Grants reprieves and pardons in offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.
4. With the consent of the Senate, makes treaties.
5. Nominates officers, with consent of a majority of Senators.
6. Fills vacancies during recess of Senate.
7. Sends messages to Congress.
8. May call extraordinary sessions of Congress.
9. May fix time for adjournment of Congress if that body disagrees as to a time.
10. Receives ambassadors.
11. Executes the laws of the United States.
12. Issues commissions to fill vacancies during the recess of the Senate.

Of Impeachment.

Sec. IV. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

Impeachment of Civil Officers.—The President, Vice-President, cabinet officers, and judges are the men who perform important work in the management of the affairs of the land. These are known as civil officers. A civil officer is one who directly helps to conduct the affairs of the government.

Impeachment is the accusation against a person for improper conduct in office.

Conviction is the result of a trial, the person being found guilty.

Treason is the act of a citizen in:

1. Levying war against the United States.
2. Giving aid and comfort to the enemies of the United States.

Bribery is the giving of something of value to influence the action of a person.

Misdemeanor is any wrong action committed by an officer while in office.

Treason and bribery are higher misdemeanors than others, such as stealing and arson.

All civil officers, from the President down to the lowest under the government, can be removed from office when found guilty by impeachment by the Senate.

Court-Martial.—While civil officers are tried by impeachment for various misdemeanors, military officers are tried by court-martial. The court consists of a number of military officers appointed to try the case. If the person is found guilty, and the findings of the court are approved, the sentence is carried out. We thus see that military officers are held accountable for their actions as well as civil officers. Privates in the army and navy are also tried by court-martial.

SUMMARY.

1. A distinct executive branch is a necessary adjunct to every government. The Constitution provides for such a department. The chief officer is known as the President.

2. The President is not elected directly by the citizens but by Presidential electors. The number of these in the several states varies according to population. The majority of the entire number is required to elect.

3. When no person receives a majority the House of Representatives elects the President. This is done because the House is chosen directly by the people.

4. The Vice-President is elected in the same manner as the President. When the electors fail to choose a Vice-President the Senate makes the selection.

5. To make Presidential elections uniform Congress has the power to appoint the day for the election of electors. Congress has fixed the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November as the day.

6. The President and Vice-President must have the same qualifications,—viz., natural born, thirty-five years of age, and fourteen years a resident of the United States.

7. There is no possibility of a vacancy ever existing in the office of President. The Constitution provides for the succession of the Vice-President, and Congress has arranged the succession through the cabinet.

8. An oath or affirmation of office must be taken by the President and Vice-President.

9. The President is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia in time of war. He has power over all executive departments. He can grant reprieves and pardons to criminals who have violated United States laws.

10. In conjunction with the Senate, the President makes treaties and appoints officers.

11. When Congress is not in session the President can appoint officers without the consent of the Senate, but the terms of such appointees are only to the end of the next session of the Senate.

12. The President informs Congress of affairs in the United States; makes recommendations to Congress in reference to legislation; can call extraordinary sessions of Congress when necessary; can adjourn Congress when that body disagrees as to a date for adjournment; sees that the laws are executed; receives ambassadors; and grants commissions to all officers.

13. All officers may be removed from office when impeached and found guilty.

QUESTIONS.

1. Tell why an executive department is a necessity.

2. Compare the Executive Department under the Constitution with the law-enforcing power under the Articles of Confederation.

3. Discuss the Presidential term of office, showing the advantages of long and short terms.

4. How are common laws made? Give an illustration.

5. Write in a column, with proper dates, all Presidents who served two terms. In another column, all those who served but one term.

6. About Presidential electors, state: (*a*) Their office; (*b*) The number in each State; (*c*) Those who are ineligible; (*d*) How they are selected; (*e*) How they are elected.

7. In the Constitution two methods of electing the President and Vice-President are provided. Which one is used at present? Why is the other not used?

8. Explain in detail the work of the electors who are chosen at the election.

9. What is meant by the Electoral College?

10. What vote is necessary to elect a President or Vice-President in the Electoral College?

11. The election in the House: (*a*) When does this body elect a President? (*b*) What constitutes a quorum on this occasion? (*c*) How is the vote taken? (*d*) How many candidates may there be for the office of President? (*e*) What vote is necessary to a choice? (*f*) Enumerate the Presidents thus elected.

12. How was the Hayes-Tilden contest decided?

13. The President. Make an outline showing the way in which each of the following performs its work: (*a*) The Electoral College; (*b*) The House of Representatives; (*c*) The Electoral Commission.

14. What is the title of the chief executive of your State?

15. What is his term of office?

16. By whom is he elected?

17. In case he is not chosen in the regular way, what provision does the State constitution provide for the election of such officer? What vote is necessary to elect on such an occasion?

18. Name five men who have served in this office in your State.

19. Describe the usual way of electing a Vice-President.

20. Election of the Vice-President by the Senate: (*a*) When does the Senate exercise this power? (*b*) How many candidates are allowed on this occasion? (*c*) What constitutes a quorum? (*d*) What is the number of votes necessary to elect? (*e*) How is the vote taken? (*f*) Mention an illustration of this method.

21. The Vice-President. Make an outline showing the manner in which each of the following performs its work: (*a*) The Electoral College; (*b*) The Senate.

22. What officer in your State corresponds to the Vice-President? How is he elected? What is his term of office? What are his duties? When the regular method of electing fails, what other method does your State constitution provide?

23. Define: (*a*) Minority President; (*b*) Majority President. Illustrate by names of candidates, the names of States, and the votes for each candidate.

24. What advantage results from the fixing of the time by Congress for a general election?

25. Name the different dates fixed by Congress for Presidential purposes.

26. Name the qualifications of the President and Vice-President.

27. Make a table showing comparisons in qualifications of United States Senator, United States Representative, President, Vice-President, Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, State Senator, and State Representative.

28. What provision has been made to keep the office of President always filled?

29. Give the salary of each of the following: President, Vice-President, cabinet officer, United States Senator, United States Representative, Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, State Senator, State Representative.

30. Define: (*a*) Oath; (*b*) Affirmation. State the purposes of each.

31. What officers in your State are required to take an oath or affirmation?

32. In reference to the President and Governor, state: (*a*) What power each has over an army and navy; (*b*) What power each has over the different executive departments; (*c*) What power each has to grant reprieves and pardons.

33. Name the different executive departments in the nation and in your State.

34. About reprieves and pardons, tell: (*a*) What they are; (*b*) How this power may be abused; (*c*) Wherein there is an advantage; (*d*) An illustration from history where a pardon was granted.

35. Treaties: (*a*) Define the term; (*b*) On what subjects made; (*c*) Method of making; (*d*) How ratified in the United States; (*e*) Five illustrations.

36. Mention five officers appointed jointly by the President and the Senate. State the work performed by each.

37. Why should the President appoint to office when the Senate is not in session, and why is it right that the term of office of such appointee should last only to the end of the next session of Congress?

38. Who appoints officers in your State? Mention five such officers and tell the work performed by each.

39. What powers does the President possess other than those already answered?

40. What officers are subject to impeachment?

41. Explain department, executive, term of office, elector, lists, majority, commission, qualifications, vacancy.

42. Explain cabinet, treaty, ambassador, minister, consul, misdemeanor.

CHAPTER XII.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

Justice.—Many attempts have been made to illustrate the meaning of justice. The pictures of Justice usually show a woman blindfolded and holding a balance in her hand. The pans of the balance are arranged so that both are on the same level. This symbolizes fairness or justice.

Nothing tends to make a government stronger than the feeling which the people have of securing justice from the courts. The courts being the only place where disagreements are legally settled, the distrust caused by an unprincipled court would be wide-spread.

In an immense country there are many people of principle. These people would sacrifice almost anything rather than have their rights infringed. Vicious and depraved persons, who are continually encroaching on the rights of the former, are also numerous. Where the courts do not exercise their power to attempt to stamp out the latter class, crime tends to increase.

When the courts are in bad repute with the people the latter become so alarmed that they frequently resort to another method of securing justice. This method is not legal so far as the laws of the country are concerned, but it secures a fairness by force when it cannot be obtained from the courts. This is taking the law into one's own hands. Punishment which meets the approbation of the people is inflicted upon the offender.

It is well to secure justice in the way provided by the laws of the land. This necessarily means good laws, and

principled judges to carry them out. In this country, where the citizens have the right to choose the representatives who attend to both, it is very strange that there is so much injustice. The greatest injustice comes from the judges. Long terms of office and fixed and large salaries have been given to make them independent of influence and fearless in the performance of their duties. It is not long terms or large salaries, however, but true manhood that prevents injustice. This quality is rarer than years or dollars, and will give a courage that terms and salary never can.

In relation to the welfare of the people, the Judicial Department is more closely connected than any other. Therefore, the judges should be men of superior qualifications. They must have a clear idea of right and wrong; they must be men of honor and principle; they must scorn anything which is in the nature of a bribe or influence; they must be true; in all, they should be men not only in form but also in mind. That which leads them to fear God will help them to respect man, to be true to themselves and their fellow-men.

Complexity of the Law.—A strange state of affairs exists in our laws. Very few people, in comparison with the many, understand them. Laws are made to be obeyed; to be obeyed they should, first of all, be understood. A man of proper education cannot understand many of the laws which are made by the nation and States. Why this strange condition? It seems that legislators take particular delight in having bills so worded that many cannot tell what they are intended to mean. Other legal documents are so worded that men of college education dispute as to what is meant. Such a paper as a lease should be short

and worded in understandable English; yet the great majority of people who sign these papers do not understand their contents. That laws should be made in such an incomprehensible way is not very plain. It certainly is the cause of many honest people being unconsciously led into the breaking of laws. Lawyers, who have made a special study of the subject, are the only ones who seem to understand laws, and yet, not infrequently, they dispute among themselves as to the meaning of a law.

The complexity of laws hinders justice. No man can stand for his principle unless he have sufficient money to hire one or more lawyers. This completely bars the poor, and yet all the poor are not rogues. Justice is as much a part of their happiness as it is of the rich.

There is room for reform in the wording of laws. Every citizen should understand all laws made. The confusion made by laws that cannot be understood frequently leads men to suffer wrong in preference to going to court where the case can be heard only after the expenditure of hundreds of dollars. Justice should be free. To secure justice only when you pay for it is no justice at all.

ARTICLE III.

Judicial Power concerning the Judges.

Sec. I. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

The Judicial Department.—This department consists of all the United States courts. Courts are those places

where the laws are explained and where persons accused of crime are tried and sentenced, if found guilty. When the judges are of a high character justice will be given to every one. It will be seen that the Judicial Department is one of importance, as upon it depends justice. One of the objects of the Constitution was "to establish justice." Only to a certain extent has this object been accomplished. It is, however, an improvement over the same topic in colonial times.

Under the Articles of Confederation there was no national Judicial Department, and therefore no United States courts. The highest courts at that time were those of the States. Each State had its own courts, and the decisions of these in many cases favored their own citizens. The decisions of one State court were frequently opposed to those of another, causing constant disputes. Under the Constitution, each State still retains its own courts, but a court higher than any of these is established. This higher court is the Supreme Court of the United States. Persons dissatisfied with the decision of a State court can appeal to this higher court.

United States Courts.—In 1789 there were but thirteen States and comparatively few people. It was apparent that the country in the course of time would expand in all directions, hence it was not known just how many federal courts would be needed. The Constitution established the Supreme Court of the United States, and, in order to meet future contingencies, it gave Congress the power to establish new courts whenever necessary. These are the courts of the United States:

One Supreme Court, established by the Constitution.
Nine Circuit Courts, established by Congress.
Seventy-eight District Courts, established by Congress.

One Court of Claims, established by Congress.
One Court of the District of Columbia, established by Congress.
Three Territorial Courts, established by Congress.

The Supreme Court decides cases from all over the United States.

The United States is divided into nine parts, each part being called a circuit. The circuit is a division of the United States for court purposes. It is not arranged for area but for population. The court in each circuit is known as the Circuit Court. The Supreme Court has nine judges. When this court is not in session each Supreme Court judge must visit the circuit assigned to him. Sometimes the Supreme Court judge cannot go to his circuit because of business in the Supreme Court. In this case the work of the Circuit Court is not stopped, because the Court has regular judges. The nine circuits are:

1. Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island.
2. Vermont, Connecticut, and New York.
3. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.
4. Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina.
5. Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas.
6. Ohio, Michigan, Kentucky, and Tennessee.
7. Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin.
8. Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Wyoming, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Oklahoma.
9. California, Oregon, Nevada, Idaho, Montana, and Washington.

The United States is also divided into seventy-eight districts, each of which has a United States court known as the District Court. Each District Court has one or more judges. Pennsylvania, for instance, has three United States District Courts, located at Philadelphia, Pittsburgh,

and Scranton. Cases arising in Pennsylvania are heard in one of these three courts.

The Court of Claims decides cases from the entire country. This court is situated in Washington, D. C. It decides all claims for money which persons believe the United States government owes them.

The Court of the District of Columbia decides cases arising in the District.

Besides the courts just mentioned, there are Territorial Courts for cases that arise in the Territories, and military and naval courts. In the latter courts all offences committed within the army and navy are tried.

Business of the United States Courts. { 1. Civil cases. 2. Criminal cases.

A civil case is one in which no crime has been committed. It consists of disputes growing out of the breaking of contracts and disagreements of parties concerning their respective rights.

A criminal case is one in which crime has been committed, resulting in the death or injury of a person or of injury to his character or reputation.

The Circuit Courts generally deal with all civil suits arising under the laws of the United States.

The District Courts generally deal with all criminal cases arising under the federal laws, such as counterfeiting, robbing the mails, national bank robberies, etc.

It must not be forgotten that the federal courts mostly decide cases under the United States laws. Violation of State and city laws are tried in State courts. Appeals from the State courts, however, may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. The decision of this court is final.

The only respect in which our country is like a monarchy is in the term of office of all federal judges. If they behave themselves well they may hold the office for life. Several judges have held the office for thirty years. The judges of the United States courts are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. The salaries of the judges cannot be diminished during their term of office. The object of these two provisions—viz., to hold position for life and the inability to reduce their salaries—is to make them fearless in the performance of their duties and to secure perfect justice in their decisions. No qualifications are attached as a condition to hold the office of judge.

Extent of the Judicial Power.

Sec. II. 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

Jurisdiction of the United States Courts.—Jurisdiction is the authority which the courts exercise over different cases. It may be said that the President has jurisdiction in Alaska, meaning that the President has power or authority to execute the laws in that place.

Jurisdiction of the federal courts extends to:

1. All cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States.

2. All cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls.

3. All cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction.

4. Controversies to which the United States is a party.

5. Controversies between two or more States.

6. Controversies between a State and a citizen of another State.

7. Controversies between citizens of different States.

8. Controversies between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States.

9. Controversies between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

Equity.—A case upon which there is no law to base decision is sometimes brought into court. The case is one that should not be left undecided. It would postpone settlement, and most likely it would come into court again. The case, however, is a plain one, and the judge can easily decide. This would be a case of equity. Equity applies to those cases upon which there is no law. The object of equity proceedings is to make justice more satisfactory and complete by applying it to many cases not coming under the written laws.

A Case arising under the Constitution.—The Constitution says that no State shall grant a title of nobility. If a State should confer such title the United States court would decide this as unconstitutional, because the Constitution forbids it.

Example of a Case arising under the Laws of the United States.—Congress has made a law providing a term of imprisonment as punishment for counterfeiting. If a man is detected counterfeiting money, he is arrested and tried in a federal court.

An Example of a Case affecting Ambassadors.—Ambassadors, ministers, and consuls are officers representing this country abroad. If any of these officers become engaged in a suit, or commit a crime, the case would not be settled abroad but in our own federal courts.

An Example of Admiralty and Maritime Jurisdiction.—Admiralty and maritime cases both refer to those cases which happen at sea. If a ship is on fire and another vessel saves it from destruction, a sum of money is always demanded by the rescuer. Disputes frequently arise as to the amount. Such a dispute would be decided in a United States court.

A Case in which the United States would be a Party.—Not infrequently, the United States wishes to acquire some land for the purpose of erecting government buildings. When no agreement can be made as to the price to be paid for such land the matter is adjusted in the federal courts.

An Example showing a Controversy between States.—When the boundaries between two States are not well marked a dispute about the matter might arise. If not settled by the States concerned, it would be a matter for the United States courts to decide.

An Example of a Case between a State and a Citizen.—A State makes a contract with a man. The man breaks the contract, and the State sues him. The suit would be tried in a United States court.

A Controversy between Citizens of different States.—Mr. Allen, a merchant of Philadelphia, buys goods from

Mr. Strong, a merchant of New York, and refuses to pay for them. The latter brings suit against Mr. Allen to compel him to pay for the goods. The case may be heard in one of the United States courts.

A Controversy between a State or its Citizens and Foreign States, Citizens, or Subjects.—As citizens of different States can take their cases to the federal courts, so also can citizens of foreign countries, having claims against our States or citizens, bring suit in our United States courts.

ARTICLE XI.

Of the Judicial Power.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

This amendment was made a part of the Constitution in 1798.

A State cannot be sued by a Citizen in a Federal Court.—It says in a preceding clause (Art. III., Sec. II., Clause 1) that the authority of the federal courts extended to "a State and a citizen of another State." This meant that a State could be sued by citizens. At the beginning of the government this part caused general dissatisfaction, as it was considered improper for a State to be sued by an individual. An amendment was proposed in 1794 and ratified in 1798. This amendment says that no suits against a State by citizens can be heard in a court of the United States. Many States at first took advantage of this amendment to repudiate their debts. The thought may arise in your

mind, How can a citizen receive justice if he have a clear case against a State? Many State constitutions contain a clause prescribing the manner in which such States can be sued in certain cases. Of course, if such clause is not in the State constitution that State cannot be sued. All disputes of the same character must be tried in State courts and not in the United States courts.

Original and Appellate Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

Kinds of Jurisdiction.—Original.—Jurisdiction means the authority which the courts have to hear certain cases.

When a case is begun in a court in which it must be settled, we say that that court has original jurisdiction in this case. Original means first. Original jurisdiction is the authority given to a court to begin and finally decide a case. Original jurisdiction of the United States Supreme Court extends to:

1. **Ambassadors, public ministers, and consuls.**
2. **Those in which a State shall be a party . . . . . .**
   1. Between two or more States.
   2. Between a State and citizens of another State.
   3. Between a State or its citizens and foreign States or citizens.

The decisions of the United States Supreme Court are final, hence its decisions in any of the preceding cases must be accepted by all concerned.

Appellate Jurisdiction.—When the decision of a lower court is not satisfactory to either party in a controversy the case may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States. The removal of a case from a lower court to a higher one is called an appeal, and the jurisdiction in such cases is called appellate jurisdiction. Appellate jurisdiction is the authority of the Supreme Court to grant another hearing to a case that has already been heard and decided by a lower court. The object of appellate jurisdiction is to make justice more complete and to correct any errors which might have been made in a decision of a lower court. When the Supreme Court decides in an appellate case its decision is final. As illustrating appellate jurisdiction, a familiar case in history occurs. Dred Scott, a slave, lived with his master in the slave State of Missouri. His master took him to the free State of Illinois. Some years afterwards he was brought back to Missouri by his master and sold to another man, who flogged him. Scott sued his master for damages, claiming that the latter had no right to whip him, as he was a free man. He claimed to be free on account of having been taken to free soil. The case was tried in two State courts, one of which decided in favor of the slave. The losing side not being willing to accept the decision, it was finally appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, where, in 1857, the case was decided in favor of the master. The court decided that Scott's residence in a free State did not make him free, therefore he did not have the right to sue his master for damages.

The following shows the appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court:

1. Cases arising under the Constitution, the United States laws, and the treaties made by authority of the Constitution.
2. Admiralty and maritime jurisdiction.

3. Cases in which the United States shall be a party.

4. Controversies between citizens of different States.

5. Controversies between citizens of the same State, claiming lands under grants of different States.

Trials for Crimes.

3. The trials of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Trial by Jury.—In olden times in England it was the custom to sentence persons immediately without granting them any regular trial. By this unfair method many innocent persons oftentimes were either hanged or given long terms of imprisonment. In 1215 the English people became so aroused concerning this question that they rebelled, and forced the king to grant them regular trials. From that time to the present the right of trial by jury has existed in England, and this right was embodied in the Constitution of the United States.

A trial by jury is a hearing which takes place before a number of men, who judge from the evidence given whether a man is guilty or innocent of the crime of which he is accused.

A common jury is composed of twelve citizens. The membership of a jury changes from time to time. To secure a decision in any case the twelve men must agree on a verdict. If the jury does not agree it is discharged, and the case is retried before another jury.

Impeachment is the only case which cannot be tried by a common jury. As you remember, such cases are tried by the Senate.

The Place of Trial.—The trials of all crimes must be held in the State where the offence was committed. If a crime were committed in Ohio it would be very unjust to try such a case in California. The object of this provision is to secure justice to an accused party. When a crime is committed, usually there are persons who see the deed. These witnesses are important persons in a trial, as they can give evidence showing who is the guilty party. If the case were tried in another State these witnesses might not be able to attend the trial; consequently, important facts would be omitted and the accused might suffer unjustly. If the case were heard where the crime was committed such persons could attend the trial.

When the crime is not committed in any State, such, for instance, as on the high seas, Congress has the authority to specify where the trial shall be held.

In 1898 a very peculiar case arose. In that year a party in California sent some poisoned candy through the mails to a person in Delaware. The person in Delaware ate of the candy and soon died. The crime was traced to a person in California, who was subsequently arrested. When the case came to trial there was a great dispute as to where the crime was committed; was it

1. Where the crime was thought of, or,
2. Where the effect was felt?

It was decided that the crime was committed in California, and the trial was held there. Such cases, fortunately, are of rare occurrence. When they do happen there should be no dispute as to where the trial should take place. The punishment of the offender is of the greatest importance, and nothing should hinder it.

The Alien Law.—This clause was almost violated during John Adams's administration. A law was made in 1798 known as the Alien Law. This law gave the President power to send out or expel from the country any foreigner whose presence he deemed harmful to its interests.

If a foreigner thus expelled returned to the country he was to be sent to prison. Such proceedings would have prevented a person from having a trial by jury. To deny a person this right would have been a violation of the Constitution. The law created much dissatisfaction, and was repealed. It was at no time enforced.

The passage of the alien law was the real beginning of nullification. Kentucky declared that it would not obey such a law, on the ground that it was unconstitutional. Virginia also held similar views.

Treason—Conviction of.

Sec. III. 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

Treason.—Perhaps the greatest crime that can be committed is that of treason. It is an attempt of the citizens of a country to overthrow the government. Such a crime is even greater than murder. Murder results in the destruction of life, but treason aims at the death of a government, a nation, thus really destroying the welfare of a great number of people. There are, however, some rare exceptions, when treason results in bringing about a reform. When a great majority wish to overthrow a government there must be something very wrong in that government

which should be altered immediately. If the objectionable part is not corrected, treason may be committed by means of a revolution.

The Colonies, in 1776, after their frequent petitions and appeals had been denied, engaged in a revolution against Great Britain. In this case treason resulted in an improved form of government.

In this clause, however, it seems to speak of single or separate acts of treason. In very few parts of the Constitution is anything of this order exactly defined. To make sure of the meaning of treason, it is fully explained by these words as consisting "only in levying war against the United States, or adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." This definition was inserted to prevent any one from saying that any minor crime which a person might commit was treason. A person setting fire to a house commits arson. This crime could not come under the head of treason, as the definition does not apply. Hence a crime of this kind could not be called treason.

The method of convicting a person accused of treason is also plainly stated. Two persons who have seen the overt act must testify that the accused party is the one who committed it. Overt means open or public. Of course, if the treason is executed in secret there would be no witnesses to the act. If, however, the accused person confesses that he did the act he can be convicted without any witnesses.

- **Treason.**
  - Meaning . .
    1. Levying war against the United States.
    2. Adhering to the enemies of the United States or giving them aid and comfort.
  - Conviction .
    1. Testimony of two witnesses to the overt act.
    2. Confession by the accused.

Examples of Treason.—All the patriots who engaged in the Revolutionary War from 1775 to 1783 were really guilty of treason against Great Britain. No one was ever punished. Whenever treason becomes so wide-spread there must be good reasons for it. So there were. Had England treated her colonies in a proper manner there would have been no Revolutionary War, and consequently no treason. In cases similar to this one it is the duty of those having charge of the government to listen to complaints, and, if possible, change any objectionable part. By doing this the dissatisfied people will become content, and treason and revolutions will be averted.

Benedict Arnold was one of the most brilliant soldiers in the Continental army. When the Revolutionary War began he led the disastrous expedition against Quebec, where he was wounded. Having returned, and being still lame, he was made military governor of Philadelphia in 1778. While here he lived extravagantly and soon became very much involved in debt. He made an attempt to pay his debts by defrauding others. This made him disliked by the citizens, who finally preferred charges against him. He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be reprimanded by Washington. This seems to have been the beginning of Arnold's hatred for his countrymen. He soon asked to be appointed to the command of West Point, an important stronghold on the Hudson. It must be remembered that Clinton and the British held New York City.

While at West Point he opened communications with Clinton, who sent Major André to make arrangements to transfer the fort to the English. On his return, André was captured, and the treason of Arnold was discovered. Arnold received warning in time to escape to New York.

He received a reward from the British, but was dishonored by his countrymen, whom he attempted to destroy, and later by the English whom he assisted. André was hanged, not for treason but for being a spy.

Aaron Burr was Vice-President of the United States from 1801 to 1805. He fought a duel with Alexander Hamilton, in which the latter was killed. Burr was so much disliked by the people for this act that he was not renominated. After this he seems to have formed a design for seizing part of Texas and Louisiana and forming an independent country, of which he was to be the head. He was arrested for treason in 1807. He was acquitted, as the evidence was not strong enough to warrant his conviction.

General William Hull was the commander of an American force at Detroit during the War of 1812. He surrendered the place without making any resistance. He was tried for treason and found guilty, but was pardoned by President Madison. James Freeman Clarke says, "Public opinion has long since revised this sentence, and the best historians disapprove it." The defence offered by Hull was that he surrendered in order to save the women and children of Detroit from butchery at the hands of the Indians who formed a part of Brock's force.

John Brown.—By the Kansas-Nebraska bill the people of Kansas and Nebraska had the power to decide for themselves whether they would have slavery or not. The consequence of this was that both North and South put forth great efforts to secure the control of these Territories. On the admission of these Territories as States, two additional votes would be given to each in the Senate besides many

others in the House of Representatives. Many men from both sides flocked into the disputed Territory, and riots were of frequent occurrence. Among these men from the North was John Brown. He had strong opinions in favor of the slaves. After the dispute was settled in these Territories Brown and some twenty followers moved secretly to Harper's Ferry, in Virginia. At this place a United States arsenal was located. In 1859 this was seized by Brown and his small band. In making the attack upon the arsenal Brown expected that the slaves would rise up in insurrection, but this did not occur. He was soon captured, and was charged with murder and treason. Being found guilty of murder he was hanged.

Punishment of Treason.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

Punishment of Treason.—Congress has the power to make a law saying what punishment shall be imposed for the crime of treason. In the early times of England, persons having bills of attainder passed against them were punished in a cruel manner, all property was taken from them, and all relatives were dishonored.

Although it is right that a person should be punished for his misdeeds, it is wrong for any innocent relatives to suffer for any actions against which they could not guard. In our country this method has never been permitted.

An attainder of treason means that a person is found guilty of treason.

A person having been found guilty of treason is punished, and his property may be taken by the government and

never returned. All relatives, however, suffer no punishment, and their property is not taken from them. The meaning of this clause is that persons who commit treason must alone be punished.

SUMMARY.

1. The Constitution provides a Judicial Department, in this respect differing from the Articles of Confederation, as under the latter no United States courts existed.

2. There is one Supreme Court, and the number of inferior courts is regulated by Congress. No fixed term of office is provided for the judges, the term being during life, if the behavior is good. Like other officials, they receive a salary which cannot be diminished while they hold office.

3. The authority of the courts is well marked, all cases to which it extends being enumerated.

4. Some cases may begin directly in the Supreme Court, and are there ended, while others may be brought up from the lower courts for final adjustment. The former are known as "original cases," while the latter are termed "appellate cases."

5. Justice is secured to criminals by having the cases heard by juries and also by having the trial conducted at the place where the act was committed.

6. Treason is defined in the clause as "consisting in levying war against the United States, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." To convict a person of this crime, the person must confess or two persons must have seen him do it. The punishment to be inflicted upon a person found guilty of treason is determined by Congress.

QUESTIONS.

1. What are the duties of the Judicial Department?

2. Compare the judicial powers under the Articles of Confederation and under the Constitution.

3. Write an account of the advantages of a judicial department to a government over one which has no such department.

4. About the Supreme Court, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) When and how established; (*c*) The number of judges; (*d*) What the term of office of a judge is; (*e*) The compensation of the judges.

5. What is a Circuit Court? What is a District Court?

6. Write in a column the cases in which the national courts have jurisdiction.

7. Quote that provision of the Constitution which prevents a citizen from suing a State.

8. Define and explain: (*a*) Original jurisdiction; (*b*) Appellate jurisdiction.

9. Make an outline. Call it Jurisdiction of the United States Supreme Court. In it put: (*a*) Kinds of jurisdiction which it has; (*b*) Cases under each.

10. What is a jury? Where are trials held?

11. Tell about a law which violated the provision that every one should have a trial by jury.

12. In reference to treason, state: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) Why it is a serious crime; (*c*) What is necessary to convict a person accused of it; (*d*) Who fixes the punishment; (*e*) What exception is made to this punishment; (*f*) Three cases of treason in the history of our country.

13. What department of your State government is similar to the national Judicial Department?

14. Name the State court corresponding to the United States Supreme Court, and the other inferior State courts.

15. About the State Supreme Court, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) When and how it was established; (*c*) The number of its judges; (*d*) The term of office of judges; (*e*) What provision is made in regard to compensation.

16. Explain the difference in the jurisdiction of the national and State courts.

17. What relation exists between the Judicial Department of a government and the welfare of the people?

18. Find out the names of the judges of the United States Supreme Court. Do the same with reference to your State Supreme Court.

19. Find out the name of the court nearest to where you live.

20. Explain judiciary, equity, controversy, jury, grand jury, overt, attainder of treason.

CHAPTER XIII.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

ARTICLE IV.

Each State to give Full Faith and Credit to the Public Acts and Records of Other States.

Sec. I. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

State Records.—Public acts of a State are the laws made by the Legislature and Governor of a State. Records are the old laws and the facts about history and property which have been preserved. Judicial proceedings refer to the records of the courts. All proceedings of trials held by courts are carefully preserved, so that they may be used for reference. If, at any time, a State wishes to know anything in reference to the laws, records, and judicial proceedings of another State, such information can readily be secured. These accounts must be accepted as the truth, and used as a basis for decisions upon similar topics. Example: Cases alike in many ways are frequently tried in different States in the Union. The result in all should be identical. But, if the result in the State in which certain cases are settled is not known, the cases in another State might have a different termination. The decisions in preceding cases may be used as a basis in forming an opinion in similar ones.

Privileges of Citizens.

Sec. II. 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

Privileges of Citizens.—A privilege is a right possessed by the people in any particular place. An immunity is a special right possessed by some individuals and not by others.

In some States there are certain rights accorded to the citizens which those of other States do not possess. Different conditions may be the cause of this. But in every State equal rights must be given to all who live therein. In moving into another State, a man must be accorded all the rights which exist in that State.

This clause insures equal privileges to every citizen of a State, whether a native of the State or not. A person visiting for a short time would enjoy these rights. The purpose of this provision is to prevent a State from making a law which would grant a right to some citizens and deny the same right to others. In 1897 the Legislature of Illinois made a law which gave the veterans of the Civil War the preference over other men in civil service examinations. If this law had become operative an immunity would have been created. This immunity would have been enjoyed only by a special few. The law was declared unconstitutional, as being in direct opposition to this clause.

Fugitives from Justice.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

Return of Criminals.—Officers of the law have the power to arrest criminals only within their own State. If a criminal should flee from a State in which he had committed a crime to another State, he would be beyond the jurisdiction of the State from which he fled. If by such action the offender could secure immunity from arrest, crime would rapidly increase. Many would not fear the law, as it would be very easy to escape punishment by fleeing to another State. A person accused of a crime, and who takes refuge in another State, is called a fugitive from justice.

The officers of the law in the State to which a criminal has fled are notified, and, if possible, the criminal is captured and placed in prison. The officers of the State from which the criminal fled ask the executive or Governor of that State to issue a requisition paper on the Governor of the State in which the criminal has been arrested and is held in captivity. This paper asks permission to remove the prisoner to the State in which he committed the crime. If this permission is granted the prisoner is taken back to the State where the crime was committed, and is there tried. This is necessary, as the Constitution says, "The trial of all crimes shall be held where the said crime shall have been committed."

A requisition is a written demand from the Governor of one State to the Governor of another for a prisoner who has been arrested in the latter's State.

Extradition Treaties.—By means of treaties, agreed to by all civilized countries, criminals fleeing from one country to another can be returned. There are but few places to which a person committing a crime can flee and be safe from arrest, return, and punishment. These treaties are known as "extradition treaties," and the papers providing for the return of criminals are known as "extradition papers." An

extradition paper is a written demand from the ruler of one country to the ruler of another for an escaped criminal who has been arrested in the latter's country.

Fugitives from Service.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

Fugitives from Labor.—This clause is really useless now, as the class of persons to whom it applied no longer exists. It related to persons bound to service or labor. These were of two classes,—namely:

1. Apprentices.
2. Slaves.

During the colonial days it was the custom to send young men to master mechanics to learn trades. The parents of the young man agreed to allow him to go and work for the master mechanic. The latter in turn agreed to clothe, board, and teach the young man a trade. This agreement was drawn up between the young man's parents and the master mechanic, and was known as a contract. The young man was termed an "apprentice." Sometimes the man with whom he lived was severe. In such cases, it frequently happened that the apprentice ran away. When located, he was returned to serve the remainder of his time. Benjamin Franklin, while a youth, was apprenticed to learn the printer's trade.

Slaves were persons bound to service and labor. In this respect a slave was like an apprentice, but there was this

great difference: a slave was compelled to serve for life, while an apprentice served about four years. A slave, being bound for life, would have a hard time if the master were harsh. In such a case the desire of a slave to escape would be greater than that of an apprentice. The value of a slave was also much greater. At the beginning it was necessary for the master to buy him, and the many years service which the master expected would be gone if the slave escaped. The desire to have a slave returned was therefore much greater than in the case of an apprentice.

A slave who fled from one State to another was not free from labor or service. The party from whom such slave fled could notify the proper officers, and, if caught, the runaway slave was returned to his owner or master.

The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 was somewhat similar to this clause. Many people of the North assisted runaway slaves to escape to Canada, where they became free, as this was another country. Many slaves gained their freedom by this method, which was known as the "Underground Railway."

The last two clauses are alike in that they provide for the return of certain persons. One, however, provides for the return of fugitives from justice, while the other provides for the return of escaped persons from service or labor.

Admission of New States.

Sec. III. 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

Territories.—All land that is under the authority of the United States may be divided into three classes,—namely:

1. States.
2. Territories.
3. Colonies.

A State is a part of the United States, having a regular form of government made in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and laws of the United States. All of its affairs are conducted by its inhabitants.

A Territory is also a part of the United States, but it is directly under the control of the national government. The chief officers are appointed by the President, while the minor officials are selected by the inhabitants.

It is true that a Territory has a form of government, but it is solely controlled by the laws of the United States. But in the case of a State, it has a separate constitution and special laws enacted by its own Legislature.

A Colony is a tract of land over which the national government has absolute authority. It is not situated in the main-land but at some distance from it. The first colonies of the United States were obtained as a result of the war with Spain in 1898. The colonies, when in proper condition, will become Territories.

The following are the differences between a State and a Territory:

1. A State has representation in both branches of Congress, thus having a voice in the making of national laws. A Territory has no voice in the making of such laws, although each Territory is allowed to have a delegate in the House of Representatives. The delegate may speak on any subject pertaining to the interests of the Territory which he represents, but is allowed no vote.

2. In a State the Governor and all State officials are elected by the

people of the State. In a Territory the President, with the consent of the Senate, appoints the Governor and other important officials. The people, however, are accorded the right to elect their own Legislature.

3. States generally have a larger population, and the industries are better developed than in a Territory.

4. The citizens of a State vote for President, while those in a Territory do not.

All Territories will become States in the course of time. Increase in population and a developed state of industries usually lead a Territory to seek admission into the Union.

Change from Territory to a State.—When the people of a Territory wish it to become a State, a resolution is passed by the Territorial Legislature and sent to Congress, asking permission to adopt a State constitution. If permission is granted, elections for delegates to a constitutional convention are held. The convention meets and adopts a State constitution, which, after being ratified by the people, is presented to Congress for its consideration. If Congress approves it, a bill is introduced in that body for the admission of the Territory as a State. If the bill is passed and signed by the President the Territory becomes a State. On the Fourth of July following its admission a new star is added to the flag. If Congress refuses to pass the bill the Territory remains such till a future time.

States formed from Parts of Old States.—There are two things necessary before a State can be made from parts of other States,—namely:

1. The consent of the States concerned.
2. The consent of Congress.

This is very important, as it prevents any disputes in reference to the boundaries of States. In the history of the United States there have been many serious disputes growing out of boundary-lines. The Mexican War was partially caused by this, and a war with England almost resulted over the Oregon boundary.

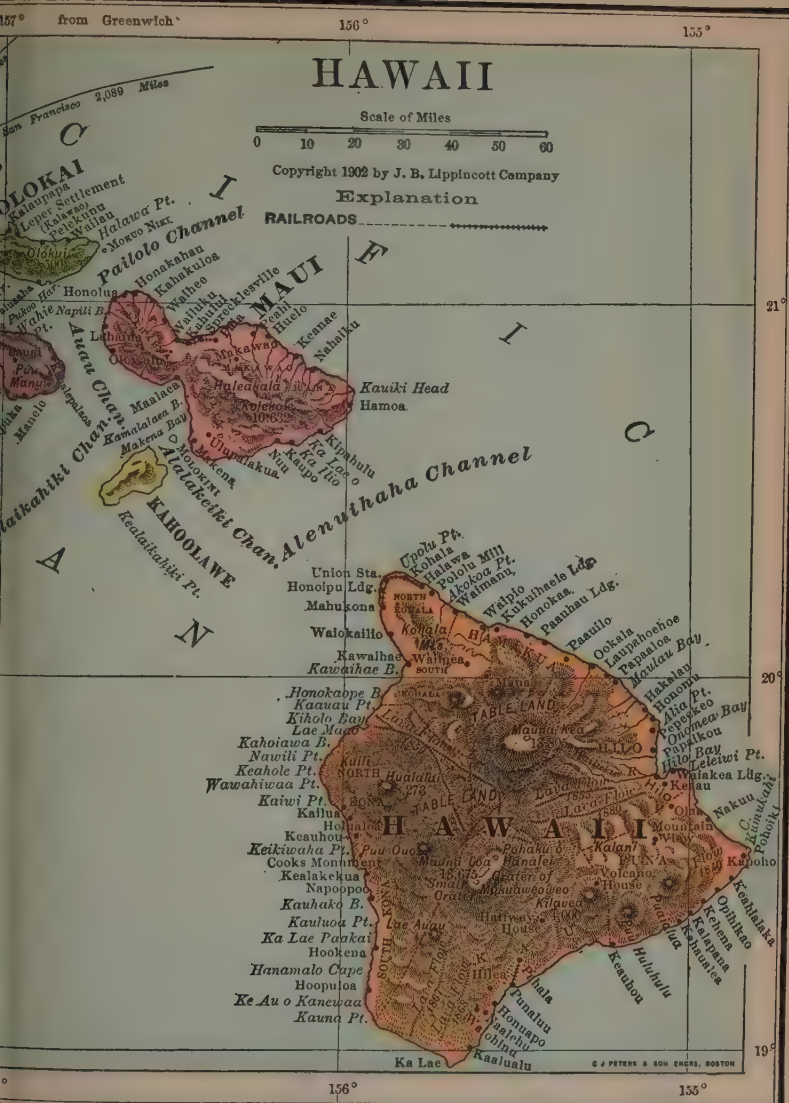
The Treaty of 1783 definitely fixed the boundary of the United States westward to the Mississippi. Almost every State bordering on the Atlantic Ocean seized this opportunity to extend its territory. Much controversy necessarily resulted, which bade fair to result in warfare. Perceiving that there was no opportunity for a settlement of the dispute, each State relinquished its claim to the government, then controlled by the Second Continental Congress. The territory thus relinquished was to be used as public land and be under the direct control of Congress.

Congress then divided the land into two parts,—viz., one north of the Ohio River, termed the Northwest Territory, and the other south of the Ohio River, termed the Southwest Territory. Immigration soon set in, and each Territory was divided into separate parts, given names, and admitted into the Union as States.

If it were proposed to divide Texas into five new States, it would be necessary for Texas and Congress to give their consent before the division could be accomplished. If a State were to be formed from parts of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia, the consent of the Legislature of each of these States and also of Congress would be necessary. During the Civil War West Virginia was admitted as a State without the consent of Virginia, because the conditions then existing prevented the getting of the consent of the mother State.

In 1789 there were thirteen States; in 1908, forty-six.

159°
158°
Longitude
Kahuku Pt
Kahuku
Laie Bay
Laie
Waimea B.
Waialau
Hauula
Kaena Pt.
Kahana Bay
Kaoio Pt.
Waianae
Kaneohe Harbor
Mokapu Pt.
OAHU
Pearl City
Heeia
Kailua Bay
Honouliuli
Waimanalo
To Yokohama 8,445 Miles
To Hongkong 4,917 Miles
Barbers Pt.
Makapu Pt.
Pearl Harbor
HONOLULU
Diamond Head
Waialae Bay
Kaiwi Channel
Lae o Ka Laau
21°
Kai o Kalohi
To Sydney 4,504 Miles
To Samoa 2,240 Miles
To Auckland 3,850 Miles
160°
159°
Haena Pt.
Hanalei
Kalihiwai B.
Kapuni Pt.
Nuololo
Alapu Pt.
Polinale
Anahola
Kahala Pt.
Kapaa
Mana Pt.
Wailua
KAUAI
Kumukahi Channel
LEHUA (Eaa I.)
Kaali
NIIHAU
22°
Puuwai Pt.
Oku Pt.
Konole Pt.
Hanamaula Ldg.
Nawiliwili Ldg.
Sinclair
Kona Pt.
Yam B.
Cooks Anch.
Pahau Pt.
Pueo Pt.
Cape Kawaihoa
Kaumuhonu
Waimea
Hanapepe
Eleele
Kawai Pt.
Kawelikoa Pt.
Wahiawa Hr.
Lawai B.
Koloa
Makahuena
Kaieie Waho Channel
WESTERN ISLANDS OF HAWAII
ON SAME SCALE AS MAIN MAP


HAWAII
Scale of Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
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Explanation
RAILROADS
157° from Greenwich
156°
155°
21°
20°
19°
San Francisco 2,089 Miles
MOLOKAI
Kalaupapa
Leper Settlement
Kalawao
Pelekunu
Wailau
Halawa Pt.
Moloo Nigr.
Pailolo Channel
Honolua
Honakahau
Kahakuloa
Waihee
Waiehu
Wailuku
Kahului
Spreckelsville
Paia
Puunene
Keahi
Huelo
Keanae
Nahiku
MAUI
Lahaina
Olowalu
Ukumehame
Honuaula
Makena
Kaupo
Kipahulu
Kauiki Head
Hamoa
Auau Chan.
Maalaea
Kamalalaea B.
Makena B.
Molokini
Alalakeiki Chan.
Alenuihaha Channel
KAHOOLAWE
Kealaikahiki Pt.
Union Sta.
Honolpu Ldg.
Mahukona
Upolu Pt.
Kohala
Halawa
Pololu Mill
Akokoa Pt.
Waimanu
Waipio
Kukuihaele Ldg.
Honokaa
Paauhau Ldg.
Waiokailio
Kawaihae
Kawaihae B.
Waimea
Paauilo
Ookala
Laupahoehoe
Papaaloa
Maulau Bay
Hakalau
Honomu
Alia Pt.
Papaikea Bay
Onomea
Papaikou
Hilo Bay
Leleiwi Pt.
Waiakea Lag.
Kuau
Honokaope B.
Kaauau Pt.
Kiholo Bay
Lae Mano
Kahoiawa B.
Nawili Pt.
Keahole Pt.
Wawahiwaa Pt.
Kaiwi Pt.
Kailua
Holualoa
Keauhou
Keikiwaha Pt.
Cooks Monument
Kealakekua
Napoopoo
Kauhako B.
Kauluoa Pt.
Ka Lae Paakai
Hookena
Hanamalo Cape
Hoopuloa
Ke Au o Kanewaa
Kauna Pt.
Ka Lae
Kaalualu
KOHALA
NORTH KOHALA
SOUTH KOHALA
HAMAKUA
KAU
HILO
PUNA
TABLE LAND
Mauna Kea 13,953
Kalili
NORTH Hualalai 8,275
SOUTH
Mauna Loa 13,675
Crater of Small Crater
Mokuaweoweo
Kilauea 4,000
Halemaumau
Volcano House
Hilo
Olaa
Mountain Wiew
Pahoa
Kalani
Hanalei
Pohakuloa
Kapoho
Opihikao
Kehena
Kapapana
Kahuaiea
Keauhou
Hilihulu
Honuapo
Pualu
Punaluu
Kahala
Lae Auau
Kaalualu
Nakuu
Pohoiki
Kealakaka
Lae Kapukapu
Ka Lae
C. J. PETERS & SON ENGRS. BOSTON

States.	Admitted.	Electoral Vote.	Population in 1900.	Area, Square Miles.
1. Delaware	1789	3	184,735	2,050
2. Pennsylvania	1789	34	6,301,365	45,215
3. New Jersey	1789	12	1,883,669	7,815
4. Georgia	1789	13	2,216,329	59,475
5. Connecticut	1789	7	908,355	4,990
6. Massachusetts	1789	16	2,805,346	8,315
7. Maryland	1789	8	1,189,946	12,210
8. South Carolina	1789	9	1,340,312	30,570
9. New Hampshire	1789	4	411,588	9,305
10. Virginia	1789	12	1,854,184	42,450
11. New York	1789	39	7,268,009	49,170
12. North Carolina	1789	12	1,891,992	52,250
13. Rhode Island	1790	4	428,556	1,250
14. Vermont	1791	4	343,641	9,565
15. Kentucky	1792	13	2,147,174	40,400
16. Tennessee	1796	12	2,022,723	42,050
17. Ohio	1803	23	4,157,545	41,080
18. Louisiana	1812	9	1,381,627	48,720
19. Indiana	1816	15	2,516,463	36,350
20. Mississippi	1817	10	1,551,372	46,810
21. Illinois	1818	27	4,821,550	56,650
22. Alabama	1819	11	1,828,697	52,250
23. Maine	1820	6	694,366	33,040
24. Missouri	1821	18	3,107,117	69,415
25. Arkansas	1836	9	1,311,564	53,850
26. Michigan	1837	14	2,419,782	53,915
27. Florida	1845	5	528,542	58,680
28. Texas	1845	18	3,048,828	265,780
29. Iowa	1846	13	2,251,829	56,025
30. Wisconsin	1848	13	2,068,963	56,040
31. California	1850	10	1,485,053	158,360
32. Minnesota	1858	11	1,751,395	83,365
33. Oregon	1859	4	413,532	96,030
34. Kansas	1861	10	1,469,496	82,080
35. West Virginia	1863	7	958,900	24,780
36. Nevada	1864	3	42,334	110,700
37. Nebraska	1867	8	1,068,901	77,510
38. Colorado	1876	5	539,700	103,925
39. North Dakota	1889	4	319,040	70,795
40. South Dakota	1889	4	401,559	77,650
41. Montana	1889	3	243,289	146,080
42. Washington	1889	5	517,672	69,180
43. Idaho	1890	3	161,771	84,400
44. Wyoming	1890	3	92,531	97,890
45. Utah	1896	3	276,565	84,970
46. Oklahoma	1907	7	790,205	70,430

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Territories.	Population in 1900.	Area, Square Miles
1. New Mexico	193,777	112,580
2. Arizona	122,212	113,020
3. Alaska	44,000	577,390
4. Hawaiian Islands	154,001	6,640
5. Porto Rico	806,700	3,531
6. District of Columbia . . .	278,718	70

COLONIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

Colonies.	Population in 1890.	Area, Square Miles.
Cuba. (A republic in 1902) .	1,521,700	45,884
Philippine Islands	7,000,000	114,361

The United States has some control over the Samoan Islands and the Guam Island in the Pacific Ocean.

The District of Columbia is different from a State or a Territory. It is under the direct control of Congress. There is no Governor or Legislature. The people residing within the District have no vote.

The Growth of our Country.—The number of States has increased very rapidly. This is due to the fact that our country has grown in extent. After the Treaty of 1783 the territory of the United States extended from the Great Lakes to Florida and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. The expansion of the country has been due to purchase, annexation, exploration, and conquest. The following are the additions to our country since its organization:

1. Louisiana, purchased from France in 1803 for $15,000,000.
2. Florida, purchased from Spain in 1819 for $5,000,000.
3. The annexation of Texas, in 1845.
4. California, purchased from Mexico in 1848 for $15,000,000.
5. Gadsden purchase, from Mexico, in 1853, for $10,000,000.
6. Oregon, by exploration, in 1792, 1803, and 1846.
7. Alaska, purchased from Russia in 1867 for $7,200,000.
8. Hawaiian Islands, by annexation, in 1898.
9. Cuba. (A republic in 1902.)
10. Philippine Islands, by war with Spain and purchase, in 1898.
11. Porto Rico, by war with Spain, in 1898.
12. Guam Island, by war with Spain, in 1898.

Territorial Expansion.—Governments whose authority extends over millions of people and over territory great in extent and not compact, but scattered in diverse parts of the world, are much more difficult to rule than those of which this is not true. When there are many people it is more difficult to meet their wishes. Dissatisfaction results. Wide-spread dissatisfaction tends towards rebellion. If the country be in one compact mass all parts are in touch with the central government. When a nation has colonies, governing becomes more difficult. Colonies are always hard to rule. The people see no reason why they should not be their own rulers.

Any nation having colonies must, as a matter of course, deal with a variety of races totally different from its own. The civilization of all will not be the same, thus adding another difficulty to the government. The government in a colony must be more or less of a military character. The natives are prone at any time to have an uprising. Without the soldiers the civil authorities oftentimes would be put to death. Therefore such government becomes one of force and submission. The support of the troops adds

a burden to the tax-payers at home, unless sufficient money is collected in the colony. In the opinion of many people, the United States faced a serious and difficult problem by assuming control of Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, situated at great distances from the capital. This complex problem was thrust upon President McKinley as a result of the war with Spain. He and his advisers deemed it best for the United States to assume direct control of the islands.

It was maintained by those who favored the retention of the islands that our government was fast forging to the front among the nations of the world, and that in holding this place it must act as a protector for weak and tyrannized peoples, thus performing a noble work for humanity. Down-trodden races must be subjected to the elevating influences of an enlightened nation. Since the islands have been in our charge schools have been established in every village. It was further argued that their retention would enhance the commercial interests of the United States by opening new and promising fields. Immense tracts of fertile and untilled lands await the hand of the scientific American farmer to produce valuable crops. The climate of these places being tropical, the productions of such regions would increase our list of exchanges.

Thus our government in its rapid progress found it necessary to govern people far from the home country. The adopted people have been promised the fullest religious and civil liberty as soon as they are qualified for self-government. Already Cuba has been sent forth as an independent nation, and Porto Rico is rapidly making progress in all directions. Owing to the condition of the people of the Philippine Islands, it will require serious effort and a long time to prepare them for self-government.

67°
Longitude West
66°
ATLANTIC
CARIBBEAN
18° 30
18°
Pt. Boriquen
Jabos
Mora
Guerrero
Aguacate
Montana
Aguadilla
Corales
Atenales
Vitoria
Centro
Robles
AGUADILLA
Aguada
Toda
Gualataca
Cape San Francisco
Moca
Capa
Pozas
Pilotas
Puntas Cruces
Jaguey
Lagunas
Rincon
Ataleya
Cardona Pt.
Hatillo
Anasco
Cerro Gordo
Playa
Furnias No. 2
Rio Anasco
Furnias
Las Matias
Sabanita
Micadera
Rio Rosario
Algorrobo Pt.
Bateyes
Saenz
Maricao
R. Mayagüez
Mayagüez
Sabalos
MAYAGUEZ
Guanajivo Pt.
Matezes
Hormigueros
Guanajivo
Buey
Mirador
Hoconuco
Caimbajo
San German
Pt. Veras
Ancones
Cocuy
Cabo Rojo
Lajas
Montegrande
Pt. Guaniquilla
Llanos
Dak Guanica
Pt. Penones
Palmarejo
Sabana Yeguas
Parguera
Aguila Pt.
Morillos de Cabo Rojos
Pt. Melino
Pt. Parguera
Pt. Guanica
Port Guanica
Pt. Brea
Pt. Vaquero
Port Guayanilla
Port Matainsa
R. Canas
Playa Ponce
Pt. Caballo
R. Jacaguas
CAJA DE MUERTOS
Pt. Pena Agujerada
Pt. Pozo Jacinto
Isabela
Pt. Tuna
Limonas
R. Guajataca
Quebradillas
Yagueda
Rambucillo
Pt. Mangullo
Hatillo
Arecibo
Pt. Caracoles
Islote
Pt. Lavadero
Pt. Boqueron
Cacao
Camuy
Narajito
Cambalache
Cienaga
Corcobados
Santa Ana
Charcas
Tariama
Abra-Honda
Dominguito
Daban
Los Puertos
Arenalejos
Esperanza
Sabana Hoyos
Florida
Cibao
ARECIBO
Rio Arecibo
Lares
Rio Tanamá
Rio Manati
S. Sebastian
Miranda
Rio Grande de Arecibo
Rio Limon
Mirabal
Angeles
Labocero
Rio Arriba
Isolina
Bajo
Lafogre
Cariaco
Cordillera
Jagua
Carmelita
Pronton
Sabo-Arriba
Utuado
Viva-Abajo
Cialitos
Yalmeca
Tronegro
Jayales
Quebrada-Dulces
Jagua-Arriba
Damian-Abajo
Indiera
Cuay
Caimes
Garras
Adjuntas
Vegas
Puerto
Guilarte
Saltillo
Rubias
Rucio
Pontiente
Parrigues
Juana Diaz
Caonillas
Vegas
Santo Domingo
Susua
Jacana
Guayanilla
Yauco
Peñuelas
Magas
PONCE
Ponce
Muchuelo-Abajo
Bucani
Citron
Villas
Palmas
Rio Yuca
Rio Portugues
Rio Bucana
Rio Inabon
Rio Matrullas
Rio Jacaguas
Rio Nigua
Rio Macaguas
Rio Descalabrado
Rio Toa Vaca
Rio Cerrillos
Rio Jacaguas
Rio Monacillos

Greenwich
66°
C O C E A N
Pt. Cerro Gordo
Río Nuevo
Dorado
Pt. Frailes
Río Guaynabo
Pt. Salinas
Paso Seco
Río Bayamon
SAN JUAN
Cangrejos
Pt. Morrias
Maldonado Pt.
Vacia Talegas Pt.
18° 30'
Cibuco
Toa Baja
Espinosa
Medianía
Pueblo Viejo
Guaynabo
Manacillo
Río Piedras
S. Anton
Loiza
Carolina
Canóvanas
R. Herrera
Pt. Miquillo
R. Luquillo
Los Embarcaderos
Luquillo
R. Pitahaile
Pt. San Diego
Pt. San Juan
CHINCHILLERO REEF
Ilato Viejo
Sardinera
Mameyes
Fajardo
PALOMINOS IS.
R. Fajardo
Toa Alta
Pajaros
Bayamon
Candelaria
Guaynabo
Trujillo Bajo
Río Grande
Cibao
Abras
Minillas
Río Piedras
Trujillo Alto
James
Gonzalez
Pitagalla
Corozo
Naranjito
Lañas
Dajos
Sonadora
Cedro
Gazman
Cubuy
Demajagua
Pt. Piguerca
Port Medio Mundo
Padilla
Barrio Nuevo
Cedrito
Naguabo
Cabo Mala Pascua
Sierra Luquillo
Río
Maizales
S. CABRAS IS.
PINEROS IS.
Pt. Puerca
CABRAS IS.
Asientos
Aguas Buenas
Caguitas
Gurabo
Ceiba
Fajardo
Bahia Honda
Comeria
Buenas
Canabon
Juncos
Naguabo
Pt. Algodon
Barrancos
Bayamon
Caguas
Lirios
Bogueron
Hucares
Algodon Bay
Honduras
Caba Norte
Turabo
Quebrado
Ceiba
Piedras
Pt. Lima
Barranquitas
Rubana
San Lorenzo
Collores
R. Maguabo
La Plalata
Cidra
Culebras
Humacao
Punta de Santiago
Asomanta
Arenas
GUAYAMA
Cayo
CAYO SANTIAGO
Cajon
Beatriz
Quebrada Honda
Monton
R. Limacao
CAYO BATATO
VIEQUES
Rincon
Guabano
Espino
Tejas
Tanta
Cayey
Carite
Arroyo
Guayabota
Pt. Candelero
Coamo
Simiti
Los Baños
Lapa
Mulas
Yabucoa
Guayanes
La Barbacoa
Talante
Jueyes
Salinas
Jagual
Pellos
Pt. Yeguas
18°
Guayama
Patillas
Salinas
Arroyo
Central Aguirre
Jobos
Pt. Tuna
C. Mala Pascua
Pt. Viento
Pt. Figuras
Pt. Barrancas
Pt. Arenas
Puerto de Jobos
Pt. Pocuelo
N S E A
Barriles Passage
CAYO N.O.E.
CULEBRA
CAYO CRUZ
CAYO S.O.C.
CULEBRITA
Isabel Segunda
Port Mulas
Mt. Pirata
Pt. Arenas
Pt. Occidental
Pt. Vaca
Pt. Oriental
Grand Port
CARIBBEAN SEA
ISLANDS EAST OF PORTO RICO
Same Scale as Large Map
18°
65° 30'
C. S. PETERS & SON ENGRS. BOSTON
ORTO RICO
Scale of Miles
5 10 15 20
Explanation
DS
AD
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Rules concerning Territories.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Government of Territories.—A Territory is under the direct control of Congress and the President. Like the nation and States, the government of a Territory consists of three departments,—namely:

1. Legislative.
2. Judicial.
3. Executive.

The people residing in a Territory have the power to elect the members of the Territorial Legislature. This consists of two parts,—viz., the upper house or Council, and the lower house or House of Representatives.

The courts are established by Congress, and the judges are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. The Governor is also appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate.

"Other property" in the clause means post-offices, national parks, navy-yards, and other national property. As the nation owns these it is right that Congress should have the power to make rules concerning their management.

Republican Form of Government guaranteed to every State.

Sec. IV. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

Republican Form of Government guaranteed to Each State.—Guarantee means to promise or secure. Congress shall guarantee to each State:

1. A republican form of government.
2. Protection from invasion.
3. Protection against domestic violence.

A republican form of government is one in which the authority is exercised by representatives chosen by the people. If a strong political party should obtain control of Kentucky and set up a monarchy therein, the present republican form of government would be destroyed and the people would lose many of their rights. In this case many people would protest, and it would be the duty of the national government to destroy the monarchical form and restore the republican form. This is another good example of how the rights of the people are safely guarded from the schemes of those who might wish to overthrow the government.

An invasion is the entering of a country by an armed enemy. As States are not permitted to keep a standing army or navy, it is the duty of the government to protect the property of the citizens of a State when it is invaded. In 1814 the English invaded our country and burned the city of Washington. As our troops were stationed at different places and could not assemble in time, the English were unopposed.

Domestic violence means disturbances within the States, such as riots and insurrections. Whenever these disturbances arise the State authorities endeavor to quell them. For this purpose the militia of the State is used. When the disturbance is so great and violent that the militia is

unable to suppress it, the assistance of the United States may be obtained by:

1. The application of the Legislature of the State.
2. The application of the Governor of the State when the Legislature is not in session.

When the Legislature of a State is not in session the Governor is given power to apply for assistance from the national government, because it would take too long a time to convene the Legislature, and it would also be very expensive.

When any State is in rebellion or insurrection against the United States, it is not necessary to secure the consent of the State to allow United States soldiers to enter that State, nor is it considered necessary to have such consent when the rights of the general government are disrespected. President Washington sent soldiers to Pennsylvania to crush the Whiskey Insurrection. President Jackson sent troops to South Carolina to compel the payment of duties on imported goods. During a strike in Illinois President Cleveland sent troops to Chicago to secure the carrying of the mails. In none of these cases did the States ask for troops.

ARTICLE V.

Amendments to the Constitution.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: *Provided*, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and

eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses of the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

Amendments.—When a constitution is adopted it is for the future government of a State or nation. In thus looking ahead it is not possible to make every part suit the conditions which are likely to arise. In the course of a hundred years people change considerably in ideas. Education becomes more general. Many inventions and discoveries make labor easier and life more comfortable. The manners and customs also change. These changes may necessitate alterations being made in the existing government to suit the new conditions. These changes can be made either by adopting an entirely new constitution or by changing that part of the old which no longer applies. Of these two methods the latter is to be preferred, as it is easier and saves considerable time.

An alteration of any part of a constitution is called an amendment. The makers of the Constitution knew that a time would come when amendments would be needed, so they inserted a clause describing the manner in which this could be done. The following amendments have been made to the Constitution:

First ten in 1791, Washington's administration.
Eleventh in 1798, John Adams's administration.
Twelfth in 1804, Jefferson's administration.
Thirteenth in 1865, Johnson's administration.
Fourteenth in 1868, Johnson's administration.
Fifteenth in 1870, Grant's administration.

Method of amending.—There are two parts in the process of making an amendment a part of the Constitution. It must first be proposed, and then ratified.

Two Ways of proposing Amendments . . . . .

1. By Congress; vote, two-thirds of both houses.
2. By a convention, called by Congress, when the Legislatures of two-thirds of the States apply for it.

Of these two methods of proposing amendments the first is the simpler. As Congress represents the people, a vote on an amendment by it would really be a vote of the people themselves.

A convention is a meeting of delegates chosen by the people to consider and propose an amendment. In case a convention is to be held, it is necessary to hold a special election to select delegates to attend it. This would take time, and would be very expensive. It is probable that the delegates to such a convention would do no better than the Congressmen.

Ratify means to approve or to give consent to.

Two Ways of ratifying Amendments . . . . .

1. By three-fourths of the Legislatures of the States.
2. By conventions in three-fourths of the States.

The first method seems to be better than the second for ratifying an amendment. The members of the State Legislatures are chosen directly by the people, and, being already chosen, no special election is required. It is also a more rapid way, as the choosing of delegates to a convention involves considerable time.

Congress has the power to select the way in which amendments are to be ratified. The fifteen amendments which have become a part of the Constitution were all proposed by Congress and ratified by the State Legislatures. This has worked so well that it is likely that the other method will never be used.

A larger vote is required to ratify than to propose an amendment. This is because an amendment has very important effects, and no change should be made in the Constitution unless a great number consent to it. When an amendment is ratified by the requisite number of States any State which opposed it must obey it just the same as if it had ratified it.

Exceptions to the Power of Amendment . .

1. No amendment prohibiting the slave-trade could be made before 1808.
2. No amendment to the method of laying a direct tax which was in operation could be made before 1808.
3. No State can, without its consent, be compelled to lose its equal right in the Senate.

These exceptions were the result of compromises in the Constitutional Convention of 1787, by which the consent of the States to the ratification of the Constitution was secured.

The first two exceptions were caused by slavery, and, since this no longer exists, they are now only a matter of history. By the first the importation of slaves could continue without interruption until the year 1808. In that year a law went into effect by which the slave-trade was stopped. This does not mean that the slave-traffic within the United States ceased, but that the importation of slaves from foreign countries stopped.

The third exception is still in force, and probably never will be changed. No State will give its consent to lose either of its two votes in the Senate, and without its consent this cannot be done.

New Method of Direct Taxation.—Under the original article, direct taxes were laid on the population. In com-

puting the population, only three-fifths of the slaves were counted. By the Fourteenth Amendment this was changed. There being no slaves, every negro is counted as one instead of three-fifths of a man, as under the old clause. The following is the manner of laying direct taxes as compared to the method previous to 1868. Let us take the State of South Carolina as an example.

1800.		1870.	
White persons	200,000	White persons	400,000
Slaves ($\frac{3}{5}$ of 100,000) . .	60,000	Freedmen	120,000
Population	260,000	Population	520,000
Tax per person, $1.00.		Tax per person, $1.00	
260,000 at $1.00 each = $260,000.		520,000 at $1.00 each = $520,000.	

ARTICLE VI.

Public Debt.

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

Honesty.—The existing period is well marked by the never-ceasing search after money. The chief aim in life appears to be the accumulation of wealth. Accompanying this desire are other characteristics, such as deceit, flattery, and dishonesty. All of these tend to degrade. The rugged honesty of the colonists forms a pleasant picture in recollection. Right traits of character are sources of pleasure to the possessor and beholder. Honesty does not have a value in dollars; its value lies in the freedom of conscience which its possession gives.

Honesty is a potent element in a man's character. A good reputation is the result of proper action towards those

around us. Honesty means truthfulness. This is the meaning of the word when used in connection with social affairs. Promises made in conversations and in letters are honestly fulfilled. The respect given to a person possessing this quality is limitless. Even those who do not have honesty in this sense are ready to attest the honor that should be given to those who have. Honesty is used in another and perhaps broader manner. In business and where money is concerned the word finds its home. A man pays all his debts regularly and meets all his notes in due time; this man is also called honest. In commercial circles he is as much respected as the other in society. When young in business it was necessary for him to give security for the payment of his bills or else the amount of his purchases was limited. All bills having been met regularly, he slowly acquired a reputation for honesty. Credit is a close follower of honesty. Now the man can secure almost any amount of credit, and the payment can be deferred to any time. No fear is felt as to its payment. It will be paid. Wholesale business houses have many illustrations: some of their patrons can secure any amount of goods from them without security, while others must pay immediately or on delivery of goods.

Honesty in business and honesty in society are so closely allied that where the one is found the other will of necessity be there also. The desire for a reputation for honesty should be strong in every one. It is a trait acquired partly by habit. Every truthful statement, every debt paid help to form a habit which will have its own reward.

It has been truthfully said that "An honest man is the noblest work of God."

The sense of honesty was strong in the men of 1787. The immense debt contracted by the Second Continental

Congress could easily have been repudiated. The noble thought, however, of taking this debt and making it compulsory on the new government is strikingly illustrated by the provision of this clause. The confidence thus created in the new government was a means of strengthening it, and was one of the reasons for its successful inception.

Payment of Old Debts.—By the change of the form of government in 1789, it would have been a very simple matter to have thrown aside old debts. A sure sign of the weakness of a government is its inability to pay its debts. The government, under the Articles of Confederation, owed much money, and many creditors feared that they would lose all by the change. The Convention, however, had no such intention, and placed this clause in the Constitution. All engagements made before 1789 would be continued after that year. This was a very wise provision, and no doubt won many supporters for the Constitution in its early days.

By the authority of this clause, Alexander Hamilton, in 1790, had a law made, known as the "Funding System," by which all debts were to be paid. This system provided for the payment of:

1. The running expenses of the government.
2. All debts due the foreign countries who aided the Colonies during the Revolutionary War.
3. Money owed to the different States. Some States went to great expense in preparing soldiers for the Continental army and in protecting other States.
4. All debts due to soldiers of the Continental army.

The Supreme Law of the Land.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the

United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Supreme Law of the Land.—The supreme law of the land consists of three separate bodies of laws,—namely:

1. The Constitution and its amendments.
2. All laws made by Congress from 1789 till the present time.
3. All treaties made from 1789 till the present time.

The judges in each State are compelled to give their decisions from the supreme law.

By this clause it will be seen that the nation is above any State. South Carolina opposed this clause when she refused to pay duty on imported goods according to the tariff law of that time. President Jackson forced the people to pay the tax. This action of South Carolina has been termed "nullification." Nullification is the act of annulling a law, or declaring it of no effect. This principle, however, is contrary to the supreme law of the land.

Constitutional Oath and Religious Test.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

Oath of Office.—All important United States and State officers are required to take an oath or affirmation for the proper performance of the duties of their offices. Only

one of the two is required. A person taking an oath need not take an affirmation.

Persons required to take an Oath or Affirmation . . .
- National officers
  1. Legislative.
  2. Executive.
  3. Judicial.
- State officers . .
  1. Legislative.
  2. Executive.
  3. Judicial.

No Religious Test to hold Office.—No religious test can be required as a qualification to hold office under the government of the United States. A person may practise any religion so long as it interferes with no one. No matter to what faith a man belongs, his religion should govern his actions and should teach him his obligations to his Creator and his duty to his country.

ARTICLE VII.

Ratification of the Constitution.

The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Ratification.—Under the Articles of Confederation the consent of every State was required before they could go into effect. As a rule, it is impossible to get everybody to agree to any one thing. It took four years to secure the consent of the thirteen States to the Articles. This mistake being apparent, it was avoided when the time came for ratifying the Constitution. In the Constitution the consent of but nine States was required, and these were secured in less than a year. The remainder of the thirteen States ratified it later; the last State being Rhode Island, in 1790.

SUMMARY.

1. State laws, records, and court proceedings must be respected in every other State in the Union.

2. Citizens going from one State to another are entitled to all the privileges and immunities of that State.

3. Fugitives from justice must be returned if captured. The tendency to commit crime and escape punishment would increase if this were not so.

4. New States are admitted to the Union whenever Congress gives its consent. In 1789 there were thirteen States; now there are forty-five. Colonies and Territories are parts of the country, but do not possess the same political rights as the States.

5. A government by representatives is guaranteed to every State. Should it so happen that a party would attempt to make a monarchy of a State, and thus deprive the people of their representation, the national government would interfere and restore matters to their republican form.

6. The defective parts of the Constitution may be changed. This is done by an amendment. Two methods of amending are provided. Either method may be used. Fifteen changes have been made to the Constitution since its inception.

7. The debts contracted during the Revolutionary War and from 1781 to 1789 were considered a part of the debt of the country when the Constitution went into effect.

8. The highest laws of the land are those included in the Constitution and those made by Congress. The laws of the land consist of: (*a*) The Constitution; (*b*) Laws made by Congress since 1789; (*c*) All treaties.

When a State law conflicts with any of these it is void. The United States laws are supreme.

9. Oaths or affirmations must be taken by all national and State officers for the faithful performance of their duties. The oath must not be mistaken for religion, as every one is permitted to follow any religion.

10. To ratify the Constitution the votes of nine States were required. These were soon obtained. Had any State not given its consent such State would have become a nation by itself.

QUESTIONS.

1. What recognition do the records and laws of one State receive in the other States?

2. A citizen from Oregon goes to Florida. What rights does he take with him, and to what rights is he entitled in his new State?

3. How do the rights of all citizens in Kansas compare?

4. How is justice more fully secured?

5. If a man commits a crime in Baltimore and escapes from the police of that city, how can he be brought back for trial and punishment if he is captured in Duluth?

6. About an apprentice, tell: (*a*) The meaning of the term; (*b*) The reason one would flee from his employer; (*c*) How he could be returned.

7. Give a full account of the Fugitive Slave Law, telling: (*a*) Its purpose; (*b*) When made; (*c*) Its author.

8. How is the number of States in the nation increased?

9. What is a Territory? Name the differences between a Territory and a State.

10. State the procedure in order to make Arizona a State.

11. Name all the Territories existing at present.

12. Tell what States were made from: (*a*) The Northwest Territory; (*b*) The Southwest Territory; (*c*) The Louisiana purchase; (*d*) The Florida purchase; (*e*) The Oregon Territory. Give the date of the acquirement of each of these Territories.

13. Before new States can be formed from old ones, what is necessary?

14. In an outline show how the country has grown since 1789.

15. Write a brief account of the government of a Territory.

16. What is a republican form of government?

17. How can Congress guarantee this form of government to a State?

18. How can the United States protect a State in case of war or insurrection?

19. About amendments, state: (*a*) What they are; (*b*) Why they are necessary; (*c*) How many have been made to the Constitution since 1789; (*d*) The effect of each.

20. Make an outline. Call it Amendments to the Constitution of

the United States. Show: (*a*) Two ways of proposing amendments; (*b*) Two ways of ratifying them; (*c*) Exceptions to the power of amending the Constitution.

21. What provision did the makers of the Constitution insert in that document to insure the payment of the old debts of the United States which had been made previous to 1789?

22. The supreme law of the land: (*a*) Tell what it is; (*b*) Of what does it consist?

23. Who are compelled to take an oath or affirmation?

24. How was the Constitution ratified?

25. Explain immunity, requisition, extradition, Territorial delegate, invasion, religious test.

26. What is the difference between a Territorial delegate to Congress and a State representative to the same body?

CHAPTER XIV.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

An amendment is a clause added to a constitution by which some provision in it is changed. A law is a result of the exercise of a power granted by the Constitution to Congress. An amendment and a law must both be obeyed by the people; one is a change in the Constitution, the other is not.

The first ten amendments were adopted at the same time, in 1791. They contained certain rights of the people which were omitted from the Constitution, hence they form what is termed a "Bill of Rights." Being adopted so soon after the Convention of 1787, they are really a part of the original Constitution, and were probably written by men who were members of that Convention. They are not as much amendments as they are additions, inasmuch as they changed nothing contained in the Constitution. Possibly in the excitement of the time these rights were forgotten, hence they were inserted afterwards. The rights could have been secured to the people by laws. By doing this the longer process of making amendments would have been averted. It was the desire, though, to have them a part of the Constitution, so that they could not be readily changed. Had the rights been secured by laws, a change could easily have been made by a majority of Congress and the signature of the President. The Legislatures of the States would not have been consulted.

ARTICLE I.

Freedom of Religion and of the Press.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Freedom of Religion.—The following are some of the rights which are possessed by those living under the protection of the United States, and which Congress must respect:

1. No interference in regard to religion.
2. Freedom of speech and press.
3. Right to assemble and to petition.

The chief reason for the settlement of the colonies was religion and not trade. In almost every country of Europe, in the days of settlements, people were persecuted severely because of their religious beliefs. Laws were made providing for an established church. All were required to be adherents. Other sects were barred. Meetings could be held only in secret. If found out, severe punishment was inflicted upon those who attended these secret meetings. To avoid persecution and to worship according to their beliefs, they fled from their tormentors. It seemed providential that the New World was open to them. It was ready to receive them, and they were not slow in coming.

The New England colonies were settled by Puritans from England, Pennsylvania by Quakers from England, and Georgia by English and some Protestants from Germany. Carolina was settled by the Huguenots from France.

It is a mistake to attempt to have but one religion in a country. There is nothing which people will resent more than to be compelled to attend or support a church against

their will. The error in religious matters was avoided in the United States, and freedom of religion was secured by the First Amendment.

Freedom of the Press.—Abridge means to shorten or to curtail. No law can be made that will shorten or curtail the right to speak. "The press" refers to printed matter. No law can be made forbidding the publishing of anything in the newspapers. The newspapers, through their reporters, are incessantly investigating the actions of public officials. Articles are then inserted praising or condemning them. The citizens thus keep posted about them. Office-holders know that their actions are watched, hence they endeavor to avoid criticism. These rights exist only to a small extent in some monarchies. It is a serious offence in Germany to speak or write anything disrespectful of the ruler or of any official of the government. Of course, if a newspaper publishes anything that is not true in reference to a man, he can sue the paper for damages. A false publication is known as "libel."

The Sedition Law of 1798 was a violation of this right. It provided for the punishment of any one who spoke or wrote anything malicious about the government or President of the United States. This law, like the Alien Law, aroused great dissatisfaction, and was soon repealed.

The Right to assemble and to petition.—Sometimes men, chosen to represent the people in the government, do not carry out the wishes of their constituents. These representatives should be told in some way how the people wish them to act. This can be done by assembling and considering the matter. After discussing the question in meeting, a petition containing their views may be sent to the representatives. If the people of a certain district are dis-

satisfied with some act of Congress, the petition is sent to the representative of that district; and through him it is made known to Congress. So long as the assembly is peaceful no one can disturb it.

When John Quincy Adams was a member of the House of Representatives he presented many petitions urging the freeing of the slaves in the District of Columbia. Another good instance of the use of this right was when the people urged Congress not to admit to its membership Brigham H. Roberts, of Utah, who was accused of polygamy.

Just before the Revolutionary War, several petitions adopted by the colonists were sent to the king and people of England, but they accomplished nothing, because they were not heeded. The War of 1812 was opposed by several New England States because it was thought that their chief industry, commerce, would be ruined. Twenty-six delegates met at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1814, to consider their grievances. Nothing was done by them, however, as peace was soon afterwards declared. The opposition to the war, being confined mostly to the Federalist party, was small, and caused the death of this political party. In the following Presidential election it received but one electoral vote.

ARTICLE II.

Right to keep and bear Arms.

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

The Right to bear Arms.—The militia is an adjunct to the regular army. If the militia is to be of any advantage it must be well drilled and armed. Therefore, citizens may drill themselves in military tactics and keep armed so as to be in proper condition when called upon to act. If

the keeping of arms were forbidden the militia would be useless in cases of emergency.

ARTICLE III.

Quartering Troops.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Quartering Soldiers.—To quarter a soldier is to provide him with food and a place to sleep. In times of peace it is the duty of the government to look after the welfare of the soldiers, to supply them with all the things necessary to life. If, however, the soldiers are near any house, and the owner thereof gives permission to enter his house, no objection would likely be made.

In times of war the rights of the citizens cannot be too closely guarded. Congress prescribes the manner in which the soldiers may be quartered in a house. To save the army from starvation, it would be lawful for soldiers to take anything from a house without the consent of the owner. After the war, it is likely that the value of the articles taken would be paid to the owner by the government.

This clause grew out of the practice of England in colonial days. The troops of England, sent to Boston to quiet the citizens, were quartered in the houses of the colonists. This is mentioned in the Declaration of Independence as one of the causes for separation from England.

ARTICLE IV.

Right of the People to be secure from Search.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Search-Warrants.—A search-warrant is a paper issued by a court giving some one authority to enter a house. It is a man's right to do as he wishes in his home so long as his actions are lawful and do not harm others. This being true, he can refuse admittance to any one. "A man's house is his castle."

There are some cases in which, for the sake of justice, a man's house may be entered against his consent. When a man commits a heinous crime and escapes into a house, or when a man steals goods and hides them in a house, these houses may be entered and searched, but only when a search-warrant is shown.

Before search-warrants will be issued an oath or affirmation as to the truth of the statements must be made, and an accurate description of the place which is to be searched and the persons or things which are to be seized must be given. The objects of search-warrants are:

1. To prevent houses from being searched indiscriminately; thus protecting the owners.
2. To secure justice by capturing criminals wherever they may go.

ARTICLE V.

Indictment and Punishment.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

Trial for Crime.—There are two kinds of juries,—viz.:

1. Grand jury.
2. Petit or common jury.

A common jury is composed of twelve men. They decide whether an accused person is guilty or innocent. Every one of the twelve must agree before a verdict is reached. The number of men in a grand jury varies in different States. Twenty-three is the usual number. A grand jury acts only in criminal cases. A majority of its members is necessary to make a decision. The chief business of the grand jury is to examine the facts in a criminal case and judge whether the evidence is sufficient to warrant the sending of the case to court for a regular trial. The grand jury has a foreman. If the majority decide that the facts in a certain case are sufficient to hold the accused, the foreman writes over the indictment "a true bill." If they decide otherwise, he writes "not a true bill." This is the only function which a grand jury performs in a criminal case. They simply examine the facts, but do not judge whether the accused is innocent or guilty. Many trivial cases occur in which there is not sufficient evidence to warrant the expense of a trial. If it were not for the grand jury these would be sent to court. The grand jury sifts the cases, and thus prevents trivial cases from going to trial, where they would simply consume time and be an expense.

An indictment is a paper drawn by the District Attorney, stating the crime for which a person stands accused. When a true bill has been found the case goes to court for trial. When a true bill has not been found the case is generally dropped.

No indictment can be made against any of the following persons who have committed a crime:

1. A person in the army.
2. A person in the navy.
3. A person in the militia, while in service.

These persons would be tried by a court-martial, and justice would be secured there. A person in the militia in time of peace would be tried in the regular way, as he is a common citizen.

Trial Procedure.—A person commits a crime and is arrested. The facts of the case are placed before the grand jury by the District Attorney or State lawyer. The grand jury decides from the facts whether there is sufficient evidence to warrant a court trial. If a true bill is found, the man is sent to prison to await trial. When the crime is not a serious one, he may be released on bail. If he thinks himself unjustly imprisoned, he may, through his attorney, ask for a writ of *habeas corpus*. In regular order the case is called for trial before a common jury. This body of men decides, after hearing all the evidence, whether he is guilty or not guilty. If not guilty, he is immediately discharged. If guilty the judge of the court finds the law on the subject, and the convicted man is punished in accordance therewith. This ends the case, unless it is appealed to a higher court.

In the trial of civil cases the process is somewhat similar, but, as there is no crime in a civil case, no grand jury is required and no one is sent to prison. The result of a civil case is that one man must pay another so much money for damages, if a jury decides that such party has been injured by the other.

No person can be placed twice in danger of his life for the same offence. If a man is tried for treason and is acquitted, he cannot be tried for the same offence a second time. If this were not so there might be many trials of a person, who has been found not guilty several times, with the hope that he ultimately would be found guilty.

The accused person in any trial is not compelled to say anything in court which might be used against him.

All persons accused of a crime are guaranteed a regular trial according to law. No person can be sent to prison unless he has been convicted by a jury. This insures protection to all, and justice is meted out.

Seizure of Property by the Government.—It is sometimes necessary to take land from citizens to erect government buildings thereon. When this becomes necessary the government must pay to the owner or owners the value of the land. It would be very unfair not to pay such owners, as they, in order to possess it, had to pay for it at one time.

ARTICLE VI.

Rights of Defendant in Criminal Cases.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

Rights of Accused Persons.—All trials must be held in a regular order. If this were not so the trial might never be held, and during such time an accused person would be compelled to remain in prison if he could not secure bail. An impartial jury is one which favors neither one side nor the other, but decides justly from the facts presented. The trial must be held where the crime was committed, as the witnesses to the act generally reside there. The trial must be held openly. All the witnesses against the accused must be brought into court. If any of the witnesses who

are to testify in behalf of the accused refuse to come into court, they may be compelled to do so, provided they can be located. Justice is still further secured to an accused person by furnishing him with a lawyer or counsel, if he cannot pay for one himself, to defend him against his accusers.

ARTICLE VII.

Trial in Civil Cases.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

Common Law.—A common law is an unwritten one. A law not made by Congress, but established by custom and usage. Sometimes there are cases which arise that are not violations of any written law, but a decision can be reached from a common law which every one knows, and which by long-continued use has become established. No President has been elected for more than two terms; yet the Constitution says nothing against a man serving in this capacity for a third term. This is an example of common law established by custom. Washington was offered a third term, but refused to accept the nomination. He set the example of serving but two terms. Grant desired a third term, but did not receive the nomination.

Civil Cases and Jury.—If a suit, where the value in controversy exceeds twenty dollars ($20), arises under common law, the right of trial by jury must be accorded.

ARTICLE VIII.

Bails, Fines, and Punishments.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Punishments.—Bail is a sum of money or property of value given to a court as a security for a person, who is then released from prison. When the time for trial comes, the accused is notified to attend; if he does not appear, the bail is forfeited. Where the case is not serious, it is not necessary that the person be placed in prison. Bail is given, and the accused is set at liberty. In serious cases bail is not given, and the accused must stay in prison until the trial is held.

A fine is a sum of money imposed upon a person for the violation of a law. Some offences are punished by a fine only, others by imprisonment only; some are punished by both fine and imprisonment.

In olden times persons were very cruelly punished for crimes. This, fortunately, has been outgrown by the civilization of the people. It is not likely that any State would inflict any punishment which is cruel. In Delaware offenders are whipped and compelled to stand in the pillory. In Pennsylvania murderers are hanged, while in New York they are put to death by electricity. None of these is thought to be cruel, and there is no objection.

ARTICLE IX.

Rights retained by the People.

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Rights retained by the People.—This clause simply means that the rights specified in the Constitution shall not be so read as to curtail any of the rights which the citizens possess, and which are not specially mentioned in the Constitution.

ARTICLE X.

Powers reserved to the States.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Powers of the States and People.—Under Article I. a long list of powers belonging to Congress were mentioned. In the same article were mentioned some powers which the States could not exercise. If at any time a new power, which is not given to Congress and which is not denied to the States, arises, such power can be exercised by the States through the people. The interests of the people are here guarded, and preference is given to them instead of to Congress.

ARTICLE XI.

Judicial Power.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

This clause is explained under the Judicial Department. See page 217. It denies the right of a citizen to sue a State without its consent.

NOTE.—Articles XI. and XII. have been inserted here merely to give the Amendments in their regular order. They are fully explained on the pages designated.

ARTICLE XII.

Present Method of electing the President and Vice-President.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the

person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

This clause is explained under the Executive Department. See page 172. It contains the new method of electing the President and Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

Slavery prohibited.

1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Power to enforce given Congress.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Slavery.—The holding of persons as property and compelling them to work throughout their lives without any compensation is known as slavery. Slaves, without their consent, were bought and sold or transferred from one party to another. Slavery has been the greatest question in American history. It has caused many bitter disputes, and at one time almost destroyed the nation, besides costing many lives in a great civil war.

HISTORY OF THE SLAVERY QUESTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

1619. Slaves were introduced into Virginia.

1787. Ordinance of 1787, prohibiting slavery in the Northwest Territory.

1787. Debates in the Constitutional Convention between delegates from the North and South. Several compromises on this subject were the result.

1808. Slave-trade stopped, in compliance with Article I., Section IX., Clause 1, which says, "The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight."

1820. The Missouri Compromise was an agreement be-

tween the North and the South by which slavery was to be prohibited north of the southern boundary of Missouri and west of the Mississippi River. The wording of the Missouri Compromise was as follows:

"That in all the territory ceded by France to the United States under the name of Louisiana, which lies north of thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude, not included within the limits of the State contemplated by this act, slavery and involuntary servitude, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted, shall be and is hereby forever prohibited; *provided* always, that any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed, in any State or Territory of the United States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service as aforesaid."

1831. William Lloyd Garrison caused much bad feeling by publishing a paper called "The Liberator," in which he condemned slavery and asked for its abolition. The paper caused the starting of abolition societies, whose purpose it was to endeavor to have slavery abolished.

1845. The annexation of Texas caused a great amount of discussion. The Northern people were afraid that this would increase the power of the slave States in Congress, as this territory was south of the line fixed by the Missouri Compromise.

1846. The Wilmot Proviso, asking that slavery be prohibited in all the land acquired from Mexico, was presented to Congress, but was defeated.

1850. Compromise and Fugitive Slave Law. This compromise, known as the "Omnibus Bill," embraced the following:

1. The admission of California into the Union as a free State.
2. The organization of New Mexico and Utah as Territories without any provision in reference to slavery.

3. The payment of $10,000,000 to Texas to relinquish her claim to a part of the territory of New Mexico.

4. The discontinuance of the slave-trade in the District of Columbia.

5. The enactment of a stringent law for the return of fugitive slaves to their owners.

1854. Kansas-Nebraska Bill. This permitted the people of these Territories to decide for themselves whether they would have slavery or not. This bill was a virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise, as these two Territories were north of the southern boundary of Missouri and west of the Mississippi River.

1857. The Dred Scott decision. This gave a slave-owner the right to take his slaves anywhere within the United States without losing his claim upon them.

1859. The raid upon Harper's Ferry by John Brown and his companions. Brown was an ardent anti-slavery man. He, with twenty followers, made an attack upon the arsenal at Harper's Ferry. His intention was to secure the arms within the arsenal and arm the slaves in the vicinity, thus hoping to cause an insurrection.

1860–61. Secession of the Southern States. South Carolina, Florida, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee seceded from the Union.

1861–65. Civil War.

1863. The Emancipation Proclamation.

1865. Thirteenth Amendment. This abolished slavery in the United States and gave to the slaves the rights of freemen.

1868. Fourteenth Amendment. This gave the freedmen civil rights.

1870. Fifteenth Amendment. This gave the freedmen the right to vote.

Emancipation Proclamation.—During the Civil War, President Lincoln, because of his power as commander-in-chief of the army and navy, issued the Emancipation Proclamation. By this document all slaves held in those States where the people were at war with the United States became free. In other States, where the people were loyal or neutral, slavery still existed, as the President had no power to liberate them. The following is an extract from the Proclamation, issued January 1, 1863:

"Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, . . . and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, . . . do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are and henceforward shall be free."

Slavery legally abolished.—The chief cause of the Civil War was slavery. When the war was ended, and the power opposing slavery had conquered, it became necessary to abolish slavery entirely. This was done by the Thirteenth Amendment, which was adopted in 1865. The Emancipation Proclamation abolished slavery in a part of the Union, while the Thirteenth Amendment abolished it throughout the Union. Thus slavery existed in the United States from 1619 to 1865.

Involuntary Servitude.—There is still "involuntary servitude" in the United States. This phrase means to serve against one's will. It here relates to criminals and their punishment. When a man is found guilty of a crime he is sent to prison without his consent. This, of course, is involuntary servitude, and exists in every State and country. It is absolutely necessary, as there is no other way to protect good citizens and to punish offenders.

ARTICLE XIV.

Citizenship defined.

1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Citizenship.—Like treason, citizenship is here exactly defined. A citizen of the United States is a person either born here or naturalized. A person born in the United States is a natural-born citizen, while a person born in a foreign country of foreign parentage, having declared allegiance to this government, is a naturalized citizen. A naturalized citizen can hold any office in the United States except those of President and Vice-President. A natural-born citizen can hold any office. Men, women, and children may be citizens, but all citizens do not have the right to vote. Men, properly qualified, can vote in all States. Women may vote in some States. Children cannot vote in any State. Children born of American citizens in foreign countries are American citizens, unless they choose the citizenship of the country in which they were born.

Slavery having been abolished by the Thirteenth Amendment, it was necessary to further amend the Constitution, so as to secure some rights to the negroes. The Fourteenth Amendment made the negro a citizen. It gave him civil rights,—that is, the right to sue and be sued. The States were compelled by this Amendment to show them as much consideration as the white citizens.

All citizens in a State must be treated in the same man-

ner. The blacks in the sight of the law are equal to the whites, and different classes of whites are equal to each other. This is only in the eyes of the law, not in private life. Sometimes a Legislature will make a law favoring one class at the expense of another. The Legislature of Illinois made a law saying that veterans of the Civil War be given preference over other citizens in civil service examinations. The matter was taken into court, where the judge decided the law unconstitutional, because it abridged the rights of other citizens who did not serve in the Civil War and who might be just as worthy.

No State can take the life, liberty, or property of any person without a regular trial. If it is necessary to take a person's property it must be done by consent of the courts. No one can be imprisoned or hanged without the court's approval. The rights of the people, especially the negroes, were thus made more secure. Courts are supported by the States and are open to all. Any one having a complaint may go to the court, state his case, and obtain justice.

Apportionment of Representatives.

2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

New Method of apportioning Representatives.—Under the old system of apportioning Representatives, only three-fifths of the slaves were counted. By the new method provided in this clause, a negro is counted in the same manner as a white man. Representatives are apportioned according to population. In taking the census now, every inhabitant of each State is counted; but in the apportionment of Representatives, untaxed Indians are not included in the population of the State.

While the Constitution designates who are citizens of the United States, it is left to each State to prescribe the qualifications which its citizens must have to exercise the right of suffrage.

The Fourteenth Amendment made citizens of former slaves. It was feared that some States would deny the freedmen the right to vote. To guard against this, it was provided that a State denying the right of suffrage to citizens above twenty-one years of age should have the number of its Representatives in Congress reduced.

It is argued that inasmuch as these persons were counted in apportioning Representatives, they should not be deprived of the right of suffrage, and that whenever such right is withheld the number of Representatives should be reduced proportionately. The provisions of this amendment have never been enforced.

Persons disqualified from holding Office.

3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or

rebellion against the same, or given aid and comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

Disqualification to hold Office.—When the Civil War began there were many Southern men who held office under the United States government. Before taking such office it was necessary for them to take an oath of allegiance to the government. When the war broke out many of these men, contrary to their oaths to support the Constitution of the United States, enlisted in the Confederate army. After the war their cause was lost. Having broken their oaths, it was thought right that they should be disqualified from holding any United States office or State office. Those Confederates who had not previously taken an oath were not included in this provision. They were eligible to office.

Congress was empowered by this clause, when two-thirds of that body saw fit, to remove such disqualification; and if this be done such disqualified persons may hold office again.

Debts of the United States and Debts incurred in Aid of Rebellion not to be questioned.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Power to enforce given Congress.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Validity of the Public Debt.—Validity means legal, or good. A pension is a fixed sum of money given by the government to persons who have been disabled in the service of the country, especially during war. A bounty is a sum of money given by the government to a person for the performance of any special act. The difference between a pension and a bounty is that the former lasts during the lifetime of the person, while the latter is only one payment, and stops thereafter.

During the Civil War vast sums of money were spent for the support of the army and navy and the payment of pensions and bounties. Some people might think such a debt illegal, and therefore protest its settlement. Being made valid by this clause, the debt cannot be disputed as being unlawful, and must be paid.

An insurrection is an uprising of people against the acts of a government. Rebellion is also an uprising against a government. In a rebellion there are more people who are dissatisfied with the government than in an insurrection. A rebellion generally leads to a war, while an insurrection is easily put down, because there are fewer people, and, as a rule, these few do not act in harmony. A successful rebellion is called a revolution.

Revolutionary War	1775–1783.
Shays's Rebellion	1786, Massachusetts.
Whiskey Insurrection	1794, Pennsylvania.
Dorr's Rebellion	1842, Rhode Island.
Civil War	1861–1865, United States.

All persons who held money or property of the Confederate States lost everything by the result of the war. No suit could be brought against the United States or any State to make good such loss. Many people of the South were thereby made very poor.

ARTICLE XV.

Right of Citizenship not to be denied or abridged.

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Power to enforce given Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce the provisions of this article by appropriate legislation.

Right to vote.—This amendment simply increased the rights of the negro: it accorded him the right to vote.

The last three amendments relate almost entirely to slavery. Had the war not abolished slavery these would not have been made a part of the Constitution. The Thirteenth Amendment made the negro a free man, the Fourteenth made him a citizen, and the Fifteenth made him a voter.

SUMMARY.

1. Changes are made in a constitution to improve it or to make it meet some new condition. Such changes are called amendments.

2. By the first ten amendments to our Constitution rights are guaranteed to the people. These rights bear on: (*a*) Religion; (*b*) Freedom of speech and press; (*c*) Assemblage and petition; (*d*) Right to bear arms.

3. No soldier can be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner. In times of war this may be violated under certain conditions.

4. To enter a house an officer of the law must have a warrant.

5. The method of conducting a trial is described in detail. By this method full justice is accorded an accused person.

6. Excessive bails and fines cannot be imposed, and cruel punishments are not to be inflicted.

7. Slavery was entirely abolished by the Thirteenth Amendment. The freedmen were made citizens by the Fourteenth Amendment, and by the Fifteenth Amendment they were made voters.

8. Slavery being abolished, a new method of apportioning Representatives was put in force.

9. Persons engaged in the Rebellion, and who held office under the United States before the war, were disqualified from holding office afterwards unless the disqualification was removed by a two-thirds vote of each house.

10. The validity of the debt incurred by the Civil War could not be questioned. The United States could not be held responsible for the loss incurred by any Southerner by reason of the war.

QUESTIONS.

1. Define amendment.

2. Give the number of amendments made, the date of each, and the matter contained in each.

3. What is meant by a Bill of Rights? Mention one, and name its contents.

4. In column form enumerate all the rights contained in amendments one to ten.

5. Explain what is meant by: (*a*) Freedom of religion; (*b*) Freedom of speech and press.

6. How are persons made secure in their own homes?

7. Explain fully the various steps in a trial for crime.

8. About a grand jury, tell: (*a*) What it is; (*b*) Its work; (*c*) Its utility.

9. Explain the various parts of a civil case.

10. In what manner is the punishment of crime restricted by the Constitution?

11. Explain the connection between the last three amendments and slavery.

12. Write a composition on the History of Slavery

13. Write a composition on the subject of slavery, involving the following points: (*a*) Slavery from the Southerner's point of view; (*b*) From the Abolitionist's point of view; (*c*) By his freedom has the negro improved his position? (*d*) Has his freedom made him happier?

14. Explain sedition law, quartering soldiers, search-warrant, indictment, common jury, involuntary servitude.

15. Who are citizens of the United States?

16. Explain the new method of apportionment.

17. How was the debt incurred by the Civil War made valid?

CHAPTER XV.

LIVES OF HISTORICAL CHARACTERS.

Introduction to Biographies.—Why does one man succeed in business and another fail? It depends upon the man. Management is the main thing required. The want of it causes one man to be a failure, while the possession of it makes the other a success.

When the Constitution was ready to go into effect, the main question about it was not, Is it good enough? but, Are there men of honesty and ability to carry its provisions into effect? The Constitution might have been the best in the world in regard to its wording and provisions, yet if the wrong men had begun its workings it might have lasted but a short time.

The beginning of any government is its most critical period. Our country was fortunate, indeed, in having able men. The men whose task it is to inaugurate any new government, and who perform the work successfully, deserve great credit from their countrymen. It is right and proper that we should know something of the lives of the men who did so much to make the United States what it is to-day. While holding public office they performed their best work. The men we are to study have been:

1. Members of Congress or Conventions.
2. Presidents of the United States.
3. Judges of the Supreme Court.

Members of Congress or Conventions	Samuel Adams. Alexander Hamilton. John Hancock. Patrick Henry. Richard Henry Lee. Robert Morris. Edmund Randolph. Benjamin Franklin. Gouverneur Morris. John Dickinson. Henry Clay. Daniel Webster. John C. Calhoun. Charles Sumner. Stephen A. Douglas.
Presidents	George Washington. John Adams. Thomas Jefferson. James Madison. James Monroe. Andrew Jackson. Abraham Lincoln.
Judges	John Jay. John Marshall. Roger B. Taney.

SAMUEL ADAMS.

"If taxes are laid upon us in any shape, without our having a legal representation where they are laid, we are reduced from the character of subjects to the miserable state of tributary slaves."

Samuel Adams was born in Boston, September 27, 1722. Educated at Harvard College. He displayed on all occasions an unflinching zeal for popular rights, and in 1765 was elected a member of the Legislature by the patriotic party. As a delegate to the Second Continental Congress, he was present at the time of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, and signed it. He framed the Con-

stitution of Massachusetts, and was president of its Senate. The offices of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor were held by him. Died in Boston, 1802.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

"The native brilliancy of the diamond needs not the polish of art; the conspicuous features of pre-eminent merit need not the coloring pencil of imagination nor the florid declarations of rhetoric."

Alexander Hamilton was born in the West Indies, January 11, 1757. He was sent to New York, and received his education at Columbia College. While still a student he wrote a series of papers in defence of the rights of the Colonies. These won for him much notice. On the outbreak of the war he obtained a commission as captain of artillery. He soon gained the confidence of Washington, who made him his aide-de-camp. He afterwards resigned this position, but continued with the army, and distinguished himself at Yorktown. In 1782 he was sent to Congress by New York. In 1786 he took a leading part in the Trade Convention at Annapolis. He was one of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention in 1787, but his best work for the Constitution was done after the Convention. In connection with Madison and Jay, he conceived and started the famous series of essays constituting "The Federalist," which first appeared in a New York journal known as the *Independent Gazetteer*. Fifty-nine out of the eighty-five were the work of Hamilton. They cannot receive sufficient praise for their clearness and simplicity.

On the establishment of the new government in 1789 Hamilton was made Secretary of the Treasury. The disorder of the public credit rendered this office very difficult. In order to establish public credit he carried in the face of much opposition a measure for the funding of the domestic

debt. He also founded the national bank, rearranged the system of duties, and altogether proved himself the possessor of great genius as a financier.

In 1795 he resigned his office, and practised law in New York, where he was constantly consulted by Washington and his cabinet. He was the actual leader of the Federal party till his death in 1804.

JOHN HANCOCK.

"We must be unanimous; there must be no pulling different ways; we must hang together."

John Hancock was born in Massachusetts in 1737. Educated at Harvard College. He was president of the Massachusetts Assembly in 1775. Being president of the Second Continental Congress, he was the first to sign the Declaration of Independence. He afterwards became Governor of his native State. The cause of liberty was much aided by him. Died in 1793.

PATRICK HENRY.

"We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth."

Patrick Henry was born in Virginia, May 29, 1736. At an early age he entered business, but having failed he became a lawyer. Three years later, having been employed to plead the cause of the people against an unpopular tax, his great eloquence seemed suddenly to develop itself. This placed him in the front rank of American orators.

Throughout the Revolutionary War he was a zealous patriot. He was a delegate to the First Continental Congress, 1774, and delivered the first speech in that assembly. He was five times Governor of Virginia. In 1795 he declined the Secretaryship of State, offered to him by Wash-

lngton. In 1796 he retired to private life, but practised law. He died June 6, 1799. Although he was a wise man, it is chiefly as an orator that his memory lives.

RICHARD HENRY LEE.

"*Resolved*, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States."

Richard Henry Lee was born in Virginia, 1732. He was educated in England. He assisted Patrick Henry in his opposition to the Stamp Act, and was a member of the First and Second Continental Congresses, in the latter of which he moved "that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." This was added to the Declaration of Independence. Lee was not a member of the committee to draft the Declaration, as he was called away from Congress at the time.

He was a signer of the Declaration of Independence, president of Congress in 1784, and Senator from Virginia after the Constitution was adopted. He died in 1794.

ROBERT MORRIS.

"No offers must tempt us; they ought not to have a hearing of one moment, unless preceded by acknowledgment of our independence, because we can never be happy under English domination."

Robert Morris was born in England in 1733. At the age of eleven he came to Philadelphia and acted as clerk in a store, afterwards becoming one of the first merchants of the city, and acquiring a fortune. Several times Washington was supplied with money by him, thus preventing the disbanding of the army. He was a member of

the Second Continental Congress and a signer of the Declaration of Independence.

Through his efforts a national bank was established at Philadelphia in 1781. Morris was its superintendent, and large sums were deposited in it by Congress. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. The position of Secretary of the Treasury was offered to him by Washington, but he declined the office, and Hamilton was appointed. Died in poverty, 1806.

EDMUND RANDOLPH.

"Liberty, tried in the school of adversity, had made successive displays of uncontrollable energy, had risen above the storm, and now assumed her station in the midst of tranquillity and peace."

Edmund Randolph was born in Virginia, August 10, 1753. Studied at William and Mary College, and was admitted to the bar. In 1776 he helped to frame the constitution of Virginia, and became the Attorney-General of the State. From 1786 to 1788 he was Governor of Virginia, and in 1787 he was a member of the convention which framed the Constitution. Washington appointed him Attorney-General in 1789 and Secretary of State in 1794. He died in 1813.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

"I have lived a long time, and the longer I live the more convincing proofs I see of this truth, that God governs in the affairs of men. And if a sparrow cannot fall without His notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without His aid?"

Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston, January 17, 1706. He had little education, and at the age of twelve was apprenticed to his brother to learn the trade of printer. He

afterwards left Boston and came to Philadelphia. Here he opened a printing-office, and in 1729 published *The Pennsylvania Gazette.* In 1732 Franklin commenced the publication of "Poor Richard's Almanac," which contained many wise sayings and proverbs. In 1737 he was postmaster of Philadelphia, and shortly afterwards was elected member of the Assembly.

At a convention held at Albany in 1754 Franklin proposed a plan of union of all the Colonies. This plan, although adopted by the convention, did not go into effect, as the King of England and the people of the Colonies opposed it.

In 1764 he was sent to England to contest the pretensions of Parliament to tax the Colonies without representation. He returned to take part in the Declaration of Independence. To secure foreign assistance, he was sent to Paris, 1776. The result was a treaty with France, signed February 6, 1778. He continued as minister till 1785. He was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention.

He founded the Philadelphia Library, University of Pennsylvania, American Philosophical Society, and the Pennsylvania Hospital, and was the inventor of a fireplace and the lightning-rod. Died in 1790.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

"Honesty and good sense have little to fear from the snares of the cunning."

Gouverneur Morris was born in New York, January 31, 1752. Graduated from Columbia College in 1786, and was admitted to the bar. He early showed a talent for finance, and took an active part in the political affairs of the Revolutionary period. In 1787 he was a member of the Con-

stitutional Convention. He was minister to France under Washington, and United States Senator from New York, 1800–1803. Died in 1816.

JOHN DICKINSON.

"By uniting we stand, by dividing we fall."

John Dickinson was born in Maryland in 1732. He studied law, and afterwards moved to Philadelphia. As a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly, the Stamp Act Congress, and the Second Continental Congress, he took an active part in the early affairs of the government, being the author of the resolutions passed by the Stamp Act Congress protesting against the action of England, and of the Articles of Confederation passed by Congress in 1777. He was president of the Trade Convention, which met at Annapolis in 1786. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention, and in 1788 published several letters advocating the adoption of the Constitution. Died in 1808.

HENRY CLAY.

"Sir, I would rather be right than be President."

Henry Clay was born in Virginia, April 12, 1777. He studied law, and was elected to the Legislature of Virginia in 1804. In 1806 he was elected to serve an unexpired term in the United States Senate; in 1809 he was re-elected. In 1811 he was sent to the United States House of Representatives, where he was immediately chosen Speaker. A strong advocate of nationality, he denounced the claim put forth by England as to the right of search. He was a strenuous supporter of the war with that country, and, in consequence, was sent, in 1814, as one of the commissioners

to sign the treaty of peace at Ghent, where his acuteness secured some advantages for America. Clay, however, is best known as the author of the famous Missouri Compromise, restricting slavery to the States south of 36° 30′ north latitude; also for the Compromise of 1850, known as Clay's "Omnibus Bill," and for his defence of the American system of protection to native industry against the free-trade principles of Southern politicians.

He was by far too fertile in compromises to be the author of any measure conferring lasting benefit on his country. He was very popular during his lifetime, and was two or three times proposed for the Presidency, an honor, however, which he never succeeded in obtaining. Died in 1852.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

"In all governments truly republican, men are nothing—principle is everything."

Daniel Webster was born in New Hampshire, January 18, 1782. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1805. With the New England Federalists, he opposed the second war with England. Sent to Congress in 1813 he served two terms, maintaining an honorable position in an unpopular party.

Returning to Congress in 1823 as a Representative from Massachusetts Webster found few rivals. After rendering important services in the House, he was, in 1827, transferred to the Senate, the scene of his greatest triumphs. In the early part of his Congressional career he had favored free-trade and opposed the policy of protection. But in 1828 he gave his consent to Clay's "American System."

The principle of nationality, the dominant passion of his mind, was fully manifested in his prompt and thrilling reply

to Senator R. Y. Hayne, of South Carolina, who had, in 1830, attacked New England as opposing the growth of the Union.

In 1840 Webster was made Secretary of State under Harrison. Harrison died in a month, and his successor, Tyler, changed the policy of the administration. Four of the Secretaries resigned, and Webster was criticised by his own party for remaining. His persistence was justified by the successful negotiation of the Ashburton Treaty with Great Britain. When this was settled he resigned.

In 1844 Webster refused his party's nomination for President and supported Clay, who was defeated by Polk. In 1845 he was returned to the Senate. He assisted in averting a threatened war with England over the northwest boundary, which was finally fixed on the forty-ninth parallel, as suggested by him. The leading part of Polk's administration was the war with Mexico, which Webster opposed, as he did any acquisition by conquest.

He wrote that he detested slavery but was unwilling to break up the Union to abolish it. He was made Secretary of State by Fillmore in 1850. Webster was deeply disappointed at not receiving the Whig nomination for the Presidency in 1852. His health and spirits gave way, and he retired to Massachusetts, where he died, 1852.

JOHN C. CALHOUN.

"Just as people rise in the scale of intelligence, virtue, and patriotism, and the more perfectly they become acquainted with the nature of government, the ends for which it was ordered, and how it ought to be administered, the power necessary for government becomes less and less, and individual liberty greater and greater."

JOHN C. CALHOUN was born in South Carolina, March 18, 1782. Having graduated from Yale College and gained

distinction at the bar, he was sent to Congress in 1811, where he soon became the leader of the war party against England. He was the author of the tariff law of 1816, and was made Secretary of War in 1817.

The early part of Calhoun's career was marked by broad and patriotic views, to which his subsequent preferment of Southern interests presents an unfavorable contrast. The tariff of 1828 not being favorable to the Southern States, he still adhered to the government, hoping that Jackson would veto the measure. In this he was disappointed, so he went to South Carolina, and there in 1829 carried in the Legislature the notorious resolution, "That any State in the Union might annul an act of the federal government." To this Georgia, Virginia, and Alabama acquiesced, and threatened a dissolution of the Union. President Jackson promptly used energetic measures, and the resolution had no effect.

Calhoun lost popularity, and despairing of reaching the Presidency he resigned as Vice-President, but was afterwards elected to the Senate. In 1838 he delivered his famous speech on slavery, and continued to agitate on behalf of the slave-holding interests and for the dissolution of the Union till his death in 1850. In his private career he was blameless, but in his career as a statesman he stood for a principle which was one of the causes of the Civil War.

CHARLES SUMNER.

"Whatever may be the temporary applause of men, or the expressions of public opinion, it may be asserted without fear of contradiction that no true and permanent fame can be founded except in labors which promote the happiness of mankind."

Charles Sumner was born in Boston, 1811, and educated at Harvard College, where he graduated in 1830. He studied law and was admitted to the bar, but did not practise, find-

ing more congenial employment as a lecturer on legal topics and as a contributor to law journals. In private life he was greatly esteemed for his sincerity and earnestness, his general cultivation, his stainless character, and his cheerful and kindly demeanor.

He came into prominence by a civic oration on July 4, 1845, under the title of "The True Grandeur of Nations," a denunciation of war as inconsistent with greatness. Sumner agreed with the Abolitionists in asserting the inherent and total sinfulness of slavery; but, unlike them, he maintained that the Constitution did not recognize property in man, and that slavery, a purely sectional institution, could be so crippled by legislation that it would necessarily become extinct.

In 1848 he joined with others holding similar views in the formation of the Free-Soil party. In 1851 he was elected to the Senate as the successor of Webster. The post thus gained he continued to hold during the remainder of his life, being re-elected in 1857, 1863, and 1869.

He was urgent for the emancipation of the slaves, and not less strenuous, after this had been secured, in obtaining for the colored race the fullest civil and political equality. He died in 1874.

STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS.

"You cannot fix bounds to the onward march of this great and growing country. You cannot fetter the limbs of the young giant. He will burst all your chains. He will expand and grow, and increase and extend civilization, Christianity, and liberal principles."

Stephen A. Douglas was born in Vermont, 1813. In 1834 he began the practice of law in Illinois. He was elected Attorney-General of this State in the same year, member of the Legislature in 1835, Secretary of State in

1840, and judge of the State Supreme Court in 1841. He was also United States Representative and Senator.

On the question of slavery, he maintained that the people of each Territory should decide whether it should be a free or a slave State. This was known as the "Doctrine of Squatter Sovereignty."

In 1860 he received the regular Democratic nomination for President, the seceding delegates nominating Breckinridge. He supported Lincoln during the war. He died in 1861.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

"Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire called conscience."

George Washington was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. Nothing is known of Washington's childhood, notwithstanding the many stories which have gathered about his name. He seems to have been a good, healthy boy, of strong physique, with a sober-mindedness beyond his years. In 1747 he went to Mount Vernon, the residence of his half-brother Lawrence. The removal was a good thing for the boy, as it gave him access to books and to better teachers. In 1748, when he was sixteen years of age, Lord Fairfax employed him to survey his property in the valley of Virginia.

The French, about 1752, were connecting their settlements on the Great Lakes with those on the Mississippi by a chain of posts on the Ohio. This region was supposed to be English territory. Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, determined to warn them off. Washington was sent on this errand, but the result was ineffective. He was next sent in command of an expedition, but was compelled to surrender. He was a member of Braddock's staff when the latter was

sent against the French. Though he gave good advice, which was disregarded, he had the satisfaction of saving the remnants of Braddock's army.

Washington represented Virginia in the First and Second Continental Congresses, in which he took a leading part. He was appointed commander-in-chief of the Continental army. At first he did not understand the men, nor they him, but before long he brought order out of confusion, and at the same time won the love and respect of his men. He brought the war to a successful issue.

Washington retired to Mount Vernon, and turned his attention to securing a stronger government by constitutional means. Society seemed almost falling to pieces. By 1787 matters had reached such a crisis that even Congress saw the necessity for action. A convention of delegates from twelve States met at Philadelphia and formulated the present Constitution. Over the deliberations of this convention Washington presided. The government under this Constitution began in 1789, with Washington as the first President.

To his new office he brought the same qualities which had contributed so much to the success of the Revolution, the same honesty of purpose and dignity of character. Of all the many striking things in Washington's life and work, his Americanism stands forth. He thought that America should stand aloof from the conflicts of Europe, and inaugurated a policy of neutrality which has remained the policy of the country from his time to ours.

Washington's education was meagre, and he began his life-work at the age when most boys are entering upon a college career. This deficiency in his training was more patent to him, perhaps, than to any other person. To the very last he was engaged in remedying this defect, and died a fairly

well-read man in history and politics. He knew no language except his own, but he was familiar with the masterpieces of the English tongue.

JOHN ADAMS.

"Your conscience is the minister plenipotentiary of God Almighty placed in your breast: see to it that this minister never negotiates in vain."

JOHN ADAMS was born in Massachusetts, October 19, 1735. He was educated at Harvard College, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1758. In 1768 he moved to Boston. Important questions touching the rights and duties of the Colonies were freely debated at this time, and Adams is credited with having struck the key-note of the Revolution by protesting before the Governor and Council in 1765 against the enforcement of the Stamp Act and against the right of England to tax the Colonies without their consent.

He was a member of the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia, 1774. He proposed and secured the election of Washington as commander-in-chief of the Continental army. On June 7, 1776, he seconded the motion of Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States." He was one of the commissioners to arrange the treaty with England, which was finally signed on September 3, 1783. He was elected Vice-President in 1788 and again in 1792. In 1796 he succeeded Washington as President. His administration was very unpopular. This was caused by his advocacy of the alien and sedition laws. The former provided for the expulsion of a foreigner from the country without a regular trial, while the latter provided punishment for those who wrote or spoke anything malicious about the government. Failing of re-election, he retired to private life, where he died in comparative obscurity, July 4, 1826.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

"We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia, April 13, 1743. He entered William and Mary College at the age of seventeen, and remained there two years. In 1767 he was admitted to the bar and practised with success. In 1769 he was a member of the House of Burgesses, and here his first important effort was the support of a motion for the emancipation of slaves.

Jefferson was a member of the Second Continental Congress, which met at Philadelphia in June, 1775. On June 7 Richard Henry Lee moved that the independence of the Colonies be declared. Congress fixed July 1 for the consideration of the motion, and meanwhile appointed a committee of five to prepare a suitable declaration on which to act. Jefferson was chairman, and the others were Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. By request of his colleagues, Jefferson wrote the draft of the declaration, which was submitted to the House on June 28. Lee's resolution was passed July 2, and the formal declaration, essentially as submitted, was adopted July 4, 1776.

Among the reforms largely due to him were laws abolishing primogeniture and establishing the freedom of religious opinion.

He succeeded Patrick Henry as Governor of Virginia, 1779 to 1781. In 1783 he was elected to Congress, then sitting at Annapolis, where he secured the adoption of the decimal system of coinage. In 1795 he became Secretary

of State. From the origin of the Republican party Jefferson was its leader. He was President from 1801 to 1809. He died July 4, 1826.

JAMES MADISON.

"No government, any more than an individual, will long be respected without being truly respectable."

James Madison was born in Virginia, March 16, 1751. He graduated from Princeton in 1772, and studied law. In 1776 he was a member of the Virginia Convention, and took a useful part in drawing up the State constitution. In 1780 he was elected to the Continental Congress, and in 1784 to the Legislature of Virginia, in which he was instrumental in securing recognition of the right of religious liberty.

Madison was active in bringing about the Convention of 1787, which framed the federal Constitution. There he acted with Hamilton and Jay, and with them wrote "The Federalist." He was the chief author of the Virginia Plan, which even went somewhat towards disregarding State rights. He also suggested the important compromise under which, whether in apportioning taxation or representation, slaves were to be regarded as people, not chattels, but five were to be reckoned as three persons,—the so-called three-fifths rule, which secured the adoption of the Constitution by South Carolina and other slave-holding States.

Through his efforts Virginia finally ratified the Constitution by a vote of eighty-nine to seventy-nine. He was elected to the First Congress. He did as much as any one towards securing the adoption of the Constitution. Madison drafted the main features, and also offered the first ten amendments. From 1801 to 1809 he was Secretary of State, and from 1809 to 1817, President. He died in Virginia in 1836.

JAMES MONROE.

"The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power."

James Monroe was born in Virginia, April 29, 1758. He entered the Revolutionary army at the age of eighteen, and was present at several battles. He afterwards studied law with Jefferson. In 1782 he was elected to the Assembly of Virginia, and the next year to Congress, where he took an active part in the movements for framing a new constitution. He joined with Patrick Henry and other leading State rights men in opposing the ratification. He feared the power and encroachment of the federal government. He was afterwards sent by Washington as minister to France.

In 1799 he was elected Governor of Virginia, and in 1803 was sent by Jefferson to purchase Louisiana from France for fifteen million dollars. On the election of Madison he was made Secretary of State, and also performed the duties of Secretary of War. In 1816 his eminent services were rewarded by his election as President, to which office he was afterwards re-elected. The acquisition of Florida and the Missouri Compromise were events of his administration. His most popular acts were the recognition of the independence of Mexico and the South American republics, and the promulgation of what has since been called the "Monroe Doctrine," in which he declared the American policy of "neither entangling ourselves in the broils of Europe, nor suffering the powers of the Old World to interfere with the affairs of the New, and that any attempt to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere would be dangerous to our peace and safety." After being twice President, he acted as justice of the peace, a visitor of the University

of Virginia, and a member of a State convention. A profuse generosity and hospitality caused him to be overwhelmed with debt, and he found refuge with his relatives in New York, where he died in 1831. He was an honorable and able statesman, though not a speaker or a man of brilliant talents.

ANDREW JACKSON.

"The laws of the United States must be executed. They who told you that you might peacefully prevent their execution deceived you. Their object is disunion, and disunion by armed force is treason."

Andrew Jackson was born in North Carolina, March 15, 1767. He studied law, and in 1788 removed to Nashville, Tennessee. In the new State of Tennessee Jackson was a leading man. After helping to frame its constitution, he became its Representative in Congress in 1796, its United States Senator in 1797, and a judge of its Supreme Court in 1798.

When war was declared against Great Britain in 1812 Jackson, then major-general of the State militia, offered his services, which were accepted, and he was made general of the army. In 1815 the British tried to take New Orleans, but Jackson defeated them. This battle was remarkable for the fact that it was fought after the treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent in 1814. No submarine cable was in operation at that time, and therefore the mode of communication was by letters, which were brought from the Old World by vessels. The treaty was consummated December 24, 1814, but, as it required six weeks to make the voyage, Jackson was unaware of the signing of the treaty when he fought the battle on January 8.

After the purchase of Florida, Jackson was its first Governor, but he soon resigned, and in 1823 was again elected

to the Senate. In the next year he was a candidate for President. The election went to the House of Representatives, which chose John Quincy Adams. He was, however, elected to this office in 1828. A striking feature of his administration was the sweeping removal of minor officials and the filling of their places with his partisans. On November 24, 1832, the Legislature of South Carolina adopted an ordinance of nullification. President Jackson's proclamation ably argued the whole question, and declared a firm determination to execute the laws and preserve the Union.

The President's veto power was much more freely exercised by Jackson than by any of his predecessors. His most memorable veto was that of a bill to renew the charter of the United States Bank. He was re-elected in 1832.

In his administration the national debt was fully paid. In foreign affairs Jackson won credit by enforcing the claims for the spoliations committed by French vessels during the wars of Napoleon. In 1831 France, by treaty, agreed to pay five million dollars, but afterwards delayed payment. He then recommended to Congress to order the seizure of French vessels to make up the amount, and France, after a protest, paid the claim. Jackson's second term having expired on March 4, 1837, he retired to private life at the Hermitage, near Nashville, where he died, 1845.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

"Let us have faith that Right makes Might, and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it."

Abraham Lincoln was born in Kentucky in 1809. He learned the little that was taught in the country schools, and was employed in rough farm work until, at the age of nineteen, he went on a flat-boat to New Orleans. His first close view of slavery made a lasting impression on his mind.

When twenty-one years of age his father moved to Illinois, where the son assisted in felling trees and splitting rails for fences, though he still found time for the study of law. He was elected to the Legislature in 1834 and served till 1842.

When the Republican party was organized in 1856 to oppose the extension of slavery, Lincoln was its most prominent leader in Illinois. In May, 1860, the Republican convention nominated him for President. After an intensely exciting campaign, Lincoln was elected. The slavery leaders immediately put into execution their plans for the secession of the States.

On January 1, 1863, he proclaimed all slaves free in those States or parts of States then in rebellion. By the Thirteenth Amendment, ratified in 1865, all slaves throughout the United States were given their freedom. In 1864 he was renominated for President and elected, but was assassinated April 14, 1865, by John Wilkes Booth, an actor.

He was a man of strict morality. His public life was devoted to the good of his fellow-men, and his fame is established as the saviour of his country and the liberator of a race.

JOHN JAY.

"The only way to be loved is to be and appear lovely; to possess and display kindness, benevolence, tenderness; to be free from selfishness, and to be alive to the welfare of others."

John Jay was born in New York, December 12, 1745. He graduated from Columbia College in 1764, and was admitted to the bar in 1768. He was elected to the First and Second Continental Congresses. The constitution of New York was drafted by him, and he was appointed Chief Justice of the court. He was returned to Congress in 1778, and was elected its president, and in 1779 was sent as minister to Spain. He was a commissioner to arrange the treaty

which ended the Revolutionary War, and which was signed in 1783. He aided Madison and Hamilton in writing the articles for "The Federalist," and was appointed by Washington the first Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court. In 1795 he was sent to make a treaty with England. This treaty, though favorable to the United States, was denounced by his political opponents, but it was finally ratified. He was Governor of New York from 1795 to 1801. He died in 1829.

JOHN MARSHALL.

"A power vested carries with it all those incidental powers which are necessary to its complete and efficient execution."

JOHN MARSHALL was born in Virginia, 1755. He studied law, and took part in the Revolutionary War. He quickly distinguished himself in his profession, and rose to the head of the Virginia bar. In 1788 he was a member of the State convention which ratified the United States Constitution. In 1797, with Pinckney and Gerry, he was appointed envoy to France. The envoys were ordered to leave the country, as they refused to pay money to the French government. This action made him more respected and popular at home, and in 1799 he was elected to Congress. From 1800 to 1801 he was Secretary of State. He was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court in 1801, and occupied this place till his death, which occurred in Philadelphia in 1835.

ROGER B. TANEY.

"The men who framed the Declaration were great men, high in literary acquirements, high in their sense of honor, and incapable of asserting principles inconsistent with those on which they were acting."

ROGER B. TANEY was born in Maryland in 1777. He was admitted to the bar in 1799, and was elected to the State

Senate in 1816. He was a courageous opponent of slavery as early as 1819. In 1824 he passed from the Federalist to the Democratic party, and supported Andrew Jackson, who in 1831 appointed him Attorney-General of the United States, and in 1833 Secretary of the Treasury. He encouraged and carried on the removal of the government deposits from the United States Bank.

In 1836 he became Chief Justice. His early decisions were strongly in favor of the doctrine of State sovereignty; but his most famous decision was that in the Dred Scott case. He died in 1864.

CHAPTER XVI.

POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL ARTICLES.

POLITICAL PARTIES.

The Ideas of Men differ.—In republics the power of government remains with the people, who exercise it through representatives. This being true, it is natural that all persons will not hold the same opinion as to the best method of solving the problems which confront the government. It is almost impossible to set a problem before a number of people and secure a unanimous method of solution. Each one is likely to have a different plan; several at least will be offered.

How Parties are formed.—As men have various ideas as to how the country should be governed, those of like opinion unite for the purpose of controlling the government and putting their principles into practice. Before election each party nominates candidates and adopts a platform setting forth its principles. On election day the people decide which principles are to be put in force and which candidates are to fill the offices.

The Utility of Several Parties.—In governmental affairs other parties are always watching the one in power, so as to discover any mistake or fraud. Should this be discovered, the voters are informed through the newspapers. At the next election the voters may vote against the candidates of this party. This acts as a restraint upon the party in power.

Political Parties in the United States.—Political parties have existed in the United States from the beginning of the government, sometimes being few and at other times many. Political parties are not always continuous. Sometimes the principle for which a political party stands is settled and the party dies, or else adopts a new principle, lately arisen, and continues its existence under a new name.

Federalists and Anti-Federalists.—Poor as the Articles of Confederation were as a body of laws, the people were not all favorable to the Constitution. There were two parties, the Federalists, who were in favor of a strong central government and supported the ratification of the Constitution, and the Anti-Federalists, who opposed the ratification of the Constitution, because they feared that it gave too much power to the nation and that a monarchy would result. They wished the main power to exist in the States. Sufficient States giving their consent to the ratification of the Constitution, the cause of the difference of opinion no longer existed, and the Anti-Federalist party became extinct. The Federalist party still continued. In 1791 ten amendments, giving important rights to the people, were added to the Constitution, and many former Anti-Federalists gave their support to the new government.

Federalists and Democratic-Republicans.—The people of France, during Washington's administration, declared themselves a republic. This led to a bloody revolution. At the same time France was drawn into a war with Great Britain. The French, having helped us during the Revolution, thought that the United States would assist them. An ambassador named Genêt was sent to this country to

endeavor to secure assistance. Washington was of the opinion that we were too weak to engage in another war, and refused to interfere in the dispute between France and England. There were many, however, who thought, as a matter of gratitude, that we should help the French. These people formed themselves into what was known as the Democratic-Republican party. The name was afterwards shortened to Democratic party.

Democrats and Whigs.—The War of 1812 was opposed by the manufacturers of New England. A convention was held at Hartford, Connecticut, in 1814, and it was said that the members of this convention wished their States to leave the Union. Many Federalists attended this convention, and, as a result, it caused the downfall of the Federalist party. The Federalist party was succeeded by the National Republican party, and this by the Whig party in 1835. The Abolitionists, whose principle was to abolish slavery, formed a party during Jackson's administration.

Present Parties.—The Democratic party of to-day stands for a low tariff, free coinage of silver and gold at a ratio of 16 to 1, and is opposed to the idea of expansion by conquest.

The Republican party advocates a high or protective tariff, gold standard, and is in favor of expansion by conquest.

Other parties are Prohibition, Socialist-Labor, and Social Democracy.

PARTIES AND PRESIDENTS ELECTED BY THEM.

1. Federalist: Washington, Adams, 1789–1801.
2. Democratic: Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, Van Buren, 1801–1841.
3. Whig: Harrison and Tyler, 1841–1845.
4. Democratic: Polk, 1845–1849.

5. Whig: Taylor and Fillmore, 1849–1853.
6. Democratic: Pierce, Buchanan, 1853–1861.
7. Republican: Lincoln and Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield and Arthur, 1861–1885.
8. Democratic: Cleveland, 1885–1889.
9. Republican: Harrison, 1889–1893.
10. Democratic: Cleveland, 1893–1897.
11. Republican: McKinley and Roosevelt, 1897–1909

POLITICAL CONVENTIONS.

Conventions.—Before every election each political party nominates candidates for office and adopts a set of principles called a platform. This work is done at a meeting of delegates. Such a meeting is known as a political convention. All parties do not meet in one convention, nor do all conventions meet at the same time or place. Each party has its own convention and selects its own time and place of meeting. Conventions differ according to the office to be filled. The following are the names of various conventions:

1. National convention.
2. State convention.
3. County convention.
4. City convention.
5. Ward convention.

National Convention.—This is composed of delegates from all the States and Territories in the United States. The candidates it nominates are for the offices of President and Vice-President. As the term of office of these men is four years, conventions of this kind meet but once in that time. The convention generally meets from three to five months before the election, and in some city selected by the managers of the party.

State Convention.—This is composed of delegates from the counties of a State. A State convention is not so general in its membership as a national convention. There is but one of the latter for each party, while of the former there are as many as there are States.

Number of Conventions.

1. National . One for each party.
2. State . . One for each party in every one of the forty-six States. If there were four parties in each State, there would be one hundred and eighty-four conventions in all.

In a State convention the business is principally that of nominating State officers, such as Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, State Treasurer, and others. The time for holding the convention varies in the States, corresponding to the term of office of the State officials. If the term of office of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor be two years, it will be necessary for the State convention to meet every two years. In conventions of this kind the meeting-place is in some city in the State, and the time of meeting is a few months before election day.

County Convention.—This is composed of delegates from the various towns and townships of a county. The business of this convention is to nominate such county officers as Judge, Sheriff, Attorney, Clerk, Commissioners, Coroner, Surveyor, Treasurer, and Auditors. County conventions are held as often as it is necessary to nominate officers to carry on the business of the county. The place of meeting is always within the county. There are as many county conventions in a State as there are counties.

City Convention.—This is made up of delegates from the various wards of a city. The men nominated are for city offices, such as Mayor, City Treasurer, etc.

Ward Conventions.—This is composed of delegates from the different divisions or precincts of a ward. The meeting place is within the limits of the ward and the officials nominated are members of the City Councils, School Directors, and Constables.

Uniform Primary Law.—In some States laws have been passed which provide that the qualified voters shall select directly by their own votes at the primary election, and without the intervention of the old nominating convention, the candidates of their own party for all city offices. The nominating power is thus placed with the people, and the political boss is deprived of one of his assumed potent rights and his responsibilities lessened.

PROCLAMATIONS.

Meaning of the Term.—Information concerning the government is printed constantly by newspapers on their own authority. This is unofficial news. When the government wishes to give information directly to the people, the news is placed in a document called a proclamation, which is signed by the President and the Secretary of State. It is then sent to the newspapers to be published. This is official news.

Washington's Proclamation.—France was engaged in a war with England during the administration of Washington. The French sent an ambassador to the United States to secure help. The President refused to give aid and issued a proclamation of neutrality, stating that the United States would not interfere in any European conflict.

Jefferson's Proclamation.—In Jefferson's administration the crews of English ships boarded American vessels without authority and claimed some of the crews. As a result of these insults to the nation, the President issued a proclamation forbidding British cruisers to enter American ports.

Lincoln's Proclamation.—The most important proclamation issued since 1789 was the one by Lincoln in 1863. In it the President declared the slaves free in those States then in rebellion.

A Thanksgiving Proclamation.—A proclamation is issued every year by the President, in which he asks the people to assemble in their churches and thank the Supreme Ruler for His blessings during the year. It is known as the Thanksgiving Proclamation. The following one was issued by President McKinley in 1897.

"In remembrance of God's goodness to us during the past year, which has been so abundant, 'let us offer unto Him our thanksgiving and pay our vows unto the Most High.' Under His watchful providence industry has prospered, the conditions of labor have been improved, the rewards of the husbandman have been increased, and the comforts of our homes multiplied. His mighty hand has preserved peace and protected the nation. Respect for law and order has been strengthened, love of free institutions cherished, and all sections of our beloved country brought into closer bonds of fraternal regard and generous co-operation.

"For these great benefits it is our duty to praise the Lord in a spirit of humility and gratitude, and to offer up to Him our most earnest supplications. That we may acknowledge our obligation as a people to Him who has so graciously granted us the blessings of free government and material prosperity, I, William McKinley, President of the United States, do hereby designate and set apart Thursday, the twenty-fifth day of November, for national thanksgiving and prayer, which all

of the people are invited to observe with appropriate religious services in their respective places of worship. On this day of rejoicing and domestic reunion let our prayers ascend to the Giver of every good and perfect gift for the continuance of His love and favor to us, that our hearts may be filled with charity and good-will, and that we may be ever worthy of His beneficent concern.

"In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed. Done at the city of Washington, this twenty-ninth day of October, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven, and of the Independence of the United States the one hundred and twenty-second.

"WILLIAM McKINLEY.

"By the President.

"JOHN SHERMAN,

"*Secretary of State.*"

Proclamations as Laws.—Proclamations have been issued on other matters. Some proclamations, like the one in 1863, are really laws, and must be obeyed as such. Others are merely suggestions, and may be followed or not as the citizen thinks proper. Such is the Thanksgiving Proclamation. The citizens are not commanded to observe the day, but are requested to do so.

MASON AND DIXON'S LINE.

Conflicting Claims.—The land in the New World granted by the kings of England to various men was never accurately marked. The boundaries of the tracts were very indefinite, so that the land held by one frequently extended into the territory of another. Constant disputes resulted. The only way to settle the matter definitely was to fix the limits of the disputed land.

The Boundary surveyed.—The descendants of Lord Baltimore, proprietor of Maryland, and the descendants of

William Penn, proprietor of Pennsylvania, could not come to an understanding in regard to the boundary between their respective domains. As the result of much controversy, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, two English mathematicians and surveyors, were selected to fix the boundary. To guide them in their work the papers containing the original grants were used. The work was done between 1763 and 1767, and the boundary-line fixed by them gave satisfaction to all concerned. It remains to this day. The line forms the southern boundary of Pennsylvania and the northern boundary of Maryland, and is 39° 43′ 26″ north latitude.

Its Historical Meaning.—Besides having a geographical use, it has an historical meaning; in fact, its name became celebrated from history alone. In 1820, during the angry debates on the slavery question and the Missouri Compromise, John Randolph, of Virginia, said that Mason and Dixon's Line was the dividing-line between the slave and free States. Pennsylvania and all States north were free, and Maryland and all States south held slaves. Although the statement was true, the fact that it was the dividing-line was a singular coincidence, as the line was drawn long before slavery became an absorbing question in politics.

Its Present Meaning.—After 1820, as new States were admitted into the Union, this coincidence still continued. Mason and Dixon's Line only extended the length of Pennsylvania, but if it had been carried farther west in an irregular way along the Ohio River, those to the north would have all been free States, and those to the south, slave. The Civil War terminated its historical meaning, and it is

now what it was originally, the boundary-line between Pennsylvania and Maryland.

NORTHWEST AND SOUTHWEST TERRITORIES.

Cession of Claims by the States.—The treaty of peace with England in 1783 extended the boundaries of the United States westward to the Mississippi River. The population was clustered along the sea-coast, leaving the remaining land a wilderness. The extension of the boundary westward caused the States to make claim to that territory opposite to them. Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia all had claims on this territory. Some of these States, however, had their claims before 1783. Of these seven States some claimed land north and west of the Ohio River, and others that portion south and west of the same river. These claims, often conflicting, caused much dispute. Afterwards each State gave its land to Congress to be used for the common good, as follows:

New York, 1780.
Virginia, 1784.
Massachusetts, 1785.
Connecticut, 1786.
South Carolina, 1787.
North Carolina, 1790.
Georgia, 1802.

Settlement of the Territories and their Admission as States.—The land was organized into two Territories. The first was known as the Northwest Territory, and the second as the Southwest Territory. Numerous companies were formed to buy immense tracts from the government and to settle them, and soon each Territory was divided

into parts and admitted into the Union. From the Northwest Territory these States were made:

Ohio, admitted 1803.
Indiana, admitted 1816.
Illinois, admitted 1818.
Michigan, admitted 1837.
Wisconsin, admitted 1848.

From the Southwest Territory these States were made:

Kentucky, admitted 1792.
Tennessee, admitted 1796.
Mississippi, admitted 1817.
Alabama, admitted 1819.

Ordinance of 1787.—The Northwest Territory was soon sufficiently settled to entitle it to a form of government. In 1787 a committee reported "An Ordinance for the Government of the Territory of the United States Northwest of the Ohio." This measure provided for the following:

1. No slavery should exist therein.
2. Estates were to be equally divided among all children, if there were no will. This abolished the unjust law of primogeniture, which had been in effect in many Southern colonies.
3. The Governor and judges were to be elected by Congress. There was a Territorial Legislature composed of a House of Representatives and a Council. The members of the former were elected by the people, and the members of the latter were chosen by Congress.
4. Religious freedom was granted to all.
5. Education was encouraged.

In the Southwest Territory slavery was permitted to exist.

THE OREGON COUNTRY.

Discovery of the Columbia River.—Captain Robert Gray, a New England sailor, was engaged in trading with

the Pacific coast Indians as early as 1792. In this year he discovered the mouth of an immense river, which he named the Columbia, from the name of his vessel. The discovery of the river afterwards furnished the United States with a strong claim to this region when the dispute arose with Great Britain as to who owned the land. Captain Gray also had the honor of being the first American to carry his country's flag around the world.

Expedition of Lewis and Clark. — The extent of the Louisiana territory was indefinite. Jefferson, with the consent of Congress, sent an exploring expedition into the new country. The party left St. Louis in 1804 under the leadership of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark. After following the Missouri River for about twelve hundred miles they reached the place where Helena, Montana, now stands. Crossing the mountains, they launched their boats in a river. This river flowed into a larger one. Following the latter's course, they came to its mouth November 7, 1805. The river was the Columbia. Besides the knowledge of the wild West gained, the exploration enabled the United States to strengthen its claim to the territory.

Settlement of Astoria.—The reports of the wealth in furs in this unsettled region caused many to go there to trade. John Jacob Astor, of New York, organized a fur company, and proceeded to establish trading-posts from the Great Lakes to the Pacific Ocean. One of these stations was established in 1811 at the mouth of the Columbia River, and was named Astoria. This was the first American settlement in that region.

Joint Occupation of Oregon.—In 1818 a treaty was made in which it was agreed that the Oregon country

should be held by both England and the United States for a period of ten years. In 1828 the limit expired. By another agreement it was continued indefinitely, but it could be terminated by either party after a year's notice.

Dr. Whitman's Trip to Washington.—Dr. Marcus Whitman, of New York, was a missionary. In 1836 he set out for the disputed territory. Afterwards many emigrants followed him. The British, during the same time, were also making efforts to secure the land. English settlers were there. Seeing that the only way to make the United States' claim final was to populate it with our citizens, Whitman went to Washington in 1843 and laid the matter before Congress and the President. His efforts were not fruitless, and by 1845 seven thousand Americans were living in Oregon.

The Boundary settled.—The United States now had such a strong claim to the entire country that the people demanded a settlement of the dispute and a termination of the joint occupation agreed to in 1818. The one year's notice was given in 1846. In the same year, however, the matter was amicably settled by a treaty. The forty-ninth parallel was made the boundary-line; the part north of this was taken by the English and the part south by the United States. The territory acquired was immense. From it three States were afterwards made: Oregon, admitted in 1859; Washington, admitted in 1889; and Idaho, admitted in 1890.

THE STARS AND STRIPES.

The Flag.—When the Colonies were ruled by England, the flag of that country was also their flag. At the commencement of the Revolution various flags were used, but they were

not national. Patriotic mottoes were inscribed on them to inspire the soldiers. One such banner bore a pine-tree and the words, "An Appeal to Heaven;" another bore a rattlesnake and the warning, "Don't Tread on Me." When Washington took command of the army at Cambridge there was as yet no national flag. His flag was the English emblem, with the addition of thirteen red and white stripes.

The war made the adoption of a flag necessary, so the Second Continental Congress, in 1777, appointed a committee for this purpose, consisting of George Washington, George Ross, and Robert Morris. They visited the home of Betsy Ross, in Philadelphia. The result was the adoption of the American flag on June 14, 1777. It was first raised on land over Fort Stanwix, New York, and on shipboard by Paul Jones.

In 1818 Congress decided that there should always be thirteen stripes, being the number of the original States: seven of these red, signifying valor, and six white, signifying purity. The seven and six placed side by side make '76, the year of independence. The stars were to be increased as the Union became larger,—one star to be added on the Fourth of July succeeding the admission of each State.

The attack on Fort McHenry, in 1814, inspired Francis Scott Key to write some verses called "The Star Spangled Banner." The poem was afterwards put to music and sung. It is considered our national anthem.

"Uncle Sam."—"Uncle Sam" as a nickname for the United States came about in a curious way. A man living in New York during the War of 1812 was called "Uncle Sam" by the soldiers. His real name was Samuel Wilson, and his business was to send supplies to the army. All goods belonging to the government were marked "U. S."

The initials of the man's nickname and the initials of the government were thus alike, and all goods sent out by him were known as "Uncle Sam's" goods. The name clung to the government, and to-day is inseparable from it.

ARBITRATION.

Disputes peaceably settled.—In former days nations were quicker to take up arms against each other than at present. Each country is armed with weapons so destructive in their effects that any war must necessarily be short, the loss of life enormous, and the expense almost incalculable. There has been a tendency lately to settle international disputes without war. To reach that ideal state when there shall be "peace on earth," every one sees the desirability of abolishing war.

A dispute between nations may end in an agreement which is marked by a treaty. The dispute may cause a war. Matters that have reached a crisis should be left to the judgment of men having no interest in them, as the parties concerned are often so excited that reason and judgment are clouded. However, men of other nations know the facts, and after proper consideration could give a fair decision. If the verdict be accepted, war would be prevented. Settlement of cases by disinterested parties is known as arbitration. The person or persons selected are given the facts of the case. After proper consideration a decision is made, which is final. Sometimes there is only one arbiter, as in the Northwest boundary dispute, when Emperor William decided the case; sometimes there are five, as in the Alabama Claims.

Cases arbitrated.—By a treaty made at Washington in Grant's administration, three separate matters of con-

troversy between Great Britain and the United States were to be settled by arbitration. Five men, one each from Great Britain, United States, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil, met at Geneva, Switzerland. England was found to have allowed Confederate war-ships to be fitted out in her ports, and in consequence much damage was done to American commerce. The decision, made September 14, 1872, awarded fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars to the United States.

The second part of the treaty provided for the settlement of the boundary between Washington Territory and Vancouver Island in the Pacific Ocean. In 1872 Emperor William of Germany fixed the line. The island of San Juan became our territory. What was then Washington Territory has since become a State.

The third section was in reference to fisheries off the Canadian coast. The arbitrators decided against the United States in 1877, and provided for the payment of five million five hundred thousand dollars to Great Britain.

The United States claimed the right to regulate the capture of seals in Behring Sea. In violation of rules, several English ships were seized. This led to trouble with Great Britain, and the matter was adjusted by arbitration. The representatives were from Great Britain, United States, France, Norway, and Sweden. The sea was to remain open, but regulations were made. The decision was rendered in 1893.

Venezuela and British Guiana were in controversy over the boundary between them. In 1895 President Cleveland suggested to England that the question be settled by arbitration. Great Britain agreed to the proposition in 1896.

Peace Conference.—An event in the world's history occurred in 1899. Russia, the most despotic of all coun-

tries, and the one having the largest army, invited many nations to participate in a peace conference. The object was to see whether some means could not be found for the settlement of all disputes without war, and for decreasing the immense military system now possessed by all.

Many countries sent representatives, who met at The Hague, in Holland, on May 18 and continued till July 29, when recommendations were made to all governments.

The success attending arbitration gives hope for an era when war will not be the means to end a dispute. The war often exceeds in cost the value of the question in dispute, leaving out of consideration the loss of life, the destruction of trade, and the ill-feeling. The award of the arbitrators is likely to be just, and for the sake of peace and its accompanying blessings it should be accepted.

PASSPORTS.

Passports are papers given by the government to citizens who intend spending some time in foreign countries. The purpose is to protect our citizens and to secure for them all the rights of the country in which they are staying. Passports are granted only to citizens of the United States.

To secure one, application must be made to the Secretary of State. He is the only officer who has power to grant them in this country. An American citizen who happens to be in another country without this paper may get one from the United States minister to that country. A passport lasts but two years, and after that time it is of no further use. One passport is sufficient for an entire family, as the names and ages of all are mentioned in the one paper. Persons not members of one family are required to have separate passports. The cost of a passport is one dollar.

A citizen having a passport is under the protection of the

government while travelling, and any wrong done him abroad would cause the government to ask for an explanation and reparation.

PENSIONS.

Why granted.—A war takes men from their occupations and homes. By their work many support others who do not or cannot work. While serving in the army men receive pay, and thus the support at home continues. But in battle many are killed or wounded, and their ability to earn ceases. Those depending on them are therefore left helpless. That this helplessness may in some degree be ameliorated, the government grants a regular sum of money, termed a pension.

Cost.—This liberal policy of the government has cost millions of dollars. Ever since the Revolutionary War there have been many who have received its aid. Succeeding wars have added large numbers to the list of pensioners. From an annual expense of sixty-five million dollars in Monroe's administration, it has steadily increased till the enormous amount of one hundred and fifty million dollars was reached when Harrison was President.

Regulation.—Pensions are regulated by Congress. So liberal is the government that not only the wounded and disabled soldiers receive pensions, but also the widows and orphans of those who have died. The work entailed by pensions is enormous, and requires many men. The Bureau of Pensions is under the direction of the Department of the Interior. The chief officer is called the Commissioner of Pensions. He is appointed by the President and approved by the Senate, and his compensation is five thousand dollars per annum. His work consists in

distributing the money to those entitled to it, in keeping the records of soldiers, and in examining the claims of those asking for government aid.

Distribution.—Pensioners reside in all parts of the country. To require them to come to Washington to collect the money would be a hardship, as it would require some to spend a goodly part of what they were to receive. As a convenience, government agents are appointed for districts. The people living within a district call at the office of the pension agent and are given their amounts.

84°
82°
Longitude West
Ponce de Leon Bay
White Water Bay
C. Sable
U. S.
KEY
LARGO
Bay of Florida
SUGAR LOAF KEY
Barnes Sound
FLORIDA KEYS
DRY TORTUGAS
SAND KEY
BIRD KEY
EAST KEY
MARQUESAS KEYS
Key West
GULF OF MEXICO
STRAIT OF F
24°
ELBOW CAY
SALT CAY
Nicholas
CRUZ DEL PADRO C.
Maximo Gomez
Cardenas
La Boca
Jovellanos
Matanzas
Union de Reyes
Aguacate
Jaruco
Mariana
Guanabacoa
HAVANA
Bahia Honda
Pt. de Bahia Honda
P. de Cabanas
Cabanas
Guanajay
Bahia Honda
La Mulata
Rosario
S. Marcos
S. Cayetano
JUTIAS CAY
Dimas
B. de Baja
RAPADO CAY
BUENAVISTA CAY
COLORADO BANKS
B. de Guadiana
C. S. Antonio
Mantua
Sta. Maria
Guane
Remates
Pinar del Rio
Palacios
Cristobal
Regla
Rincon
Guines
Batabano
G. Matamano
Gordas
JUAN LUIS CAYS
B. de Cazones
Navajas
Torriente
Guareiras
Altamisal
Colon
Jacagua
Calimete
Murga
Cruces
Cienfuegos
Trinidad
Casilda
Yaguaramas
P. de Jagua
CAY BLANCO
CAYO DEL E DE LOS JARDINILLOS
CAYO LARGO
Canal del Rosario
TRAVIESA CAY
Bos Hermanos
C. LUZ
Santa Fe
ISLA DE PINOS
C. Noda
S. FELIPE CAY
CS. DE DIOS
Nva Gerona
B. de la Sabana
C. Frances
C. Pepe
C. Falso
P. Holandes
B. de Corrientes
C. Corrientes
P. Cabeza del Guano
P. del Este
CARIBBEA
20°
CUBA
Scale of Miles
0
50
100
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Explanation
RAILROADS
Boatswains Pt.
Rum Pt.
Georgetown
East Pt.
GRAND CAYMAN (Br.)
Boddertown
LITTLE CAYMA (Br.)
C J PETERS & SON ENGRS., BOSTON
84°
82°

From Greenwich
78°
76°
74°
SANDY CAY
JOULTER CAYS
NEW PROVIDENCE
Rock Sound
ELEUTHERA
Palmetto Pt.
Red Bay
Mastic Pt.
ROSE I.
Nassau
Eleuthera
ATLANTIC
Simon Pt.
Tongue of
RAIL ROCKS
Jack's Bluff
WAX CAY
HIGHBOURNE CAY
North Pt.
Bird Pt.
OCEAN
Exuma Sound
LITTLE S. SALVADOR
ANDROS
BIG WOOD CAY
CISTERN CAY
Alligator Pt.
CAT I.
YELLOW CAY
North Bight
B. GUANA CAY
Williams
WHITE CAY
ISLANDS
GREEN CAY
GT. GUANA CAY
Devil's Pt.
Columbus Pt.
WATLING I OR SAN SALVADOR
Landing of Christopher Columbus October 12, 1492
24°
South Bight
Ocean
DARBY I.
BARRATERRE I.
STOCKING I.
Whale Pt.
Adderley
RUM CAY
WATER CAYS
GREAT EXUMA
LONG I.
Chan.
FLAMINGO CAY
WATER CAY
Turtle Cove
Clarence
Passage
JAMAICA CAY
C. Verd
Island
Bird Pt.
LH
CROOKED I.
SEAL CAY
Crooked
Pittstown
FORTUNE I.
NURSE CAY
ACKLIN I.
RACOON CAY
RAGGED IS.
Salina Pt.
South Bluff
MIRAPORVOS CAYS
L.H
CASTE I.
Old Bahamas Channel
22°
CAY VERDE
Moron
Gerrudis
S. Lazaro
Ciego de Avila
La Guanaja
PUERTO PRINCIPE
Nagarabomba
Mijnas
Baga
Yaguajay
S. Miguel
Sibanica
Guaimaro
Yaringua
Victoria de las Tunas
S. Andres
Holguin
Cauto
La Cuba
Mayari
Barajagua
Guaimarillo
R. S. Pedro
Bayamo
Cauto Abajo
Jiguani
Manzanillo
Guisa
Campechuela
Media Luna
Mieseria
Golfo
Sierra
San Luis
Alto Songo
Jamaica
Guantanamo
Cuba
L.H
20°
Gibara
Pto. de Gibara
B. de Arroyo Seco
Pto. de Banes
Pto. de Nipe
Pto. de Lebisa
Pto. de Tanamo
Laguna de Tanamo
Pto. de Yaguaneque
Pto. de Cayo Moa
P. de Mangle
P. de Baes
Pto. de Mayari
Baracoa
Pto. de Mata
C. Maisi
Sta. Cruz del Sur
Cayahaba
Great Bay of Buena Esperanza
GUACANAYABO
GULF OF
C. de Cruz
Pt. del Ingles
L.H.
Pt. del Ojo del Toro
B. de Mora
Ramon
Pto. de Mola
Guana
Sarpullido de Turquino
P. del Tabacal
Ascerraderos
Pto. de Cadiz
Siboney
Firmeza
P. de Berraco
Calmanera
B. de Guantanamo
R. Sabanalamar
P. de la Puerta
Swy. del R. Jolo
P. de los Coletas
C. de Guinos
Cala de Oriente
SANTIAGO DE CUBA
SEA
C. Dame Marie
Jeremie
Dame Marie
NAVASSA I.
HAITI
C. Trois
Tiburon
N. Negril Pt.
Negril B.
St. Marys
Pedre Pt.
Lucea
Trail
Montego
Falmouth
R. del Falmouth
Glisbueno
St. Anns
Retreat
Galina Pt.
Port Antonio
St. Marks
JAMAICA
78°
76°
74°

APPENDIX.

THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT.

In the name of God, Amen; We whose names are under-written, the loyall subjects of our dread soveraigne Lord King James, by ye grace of God of Great Britaine, France and Ireland, King, defender of ye faith, &c., haveing undertaken, for ye glorie of God and advancemente of ye Christian faith, and honour of our King and countrie, a voyage to plant the first colonie in ye Northerne parts of Virginia, doe by these presents solemnly and mutually in ye presence of God, and one of another, covenant and combine ourselves together into a civill body politick, for our better ordering and preservation and furtherance of ye ends aforesaid; and by vertue hereof to enact, constitute and frame such just and equall lawes, ordinances, acts, constitutions and offices, from time to time, as shall be thought most meete and convenient for ye generall good of ye colonie, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witnesse whereof we have hereunder subscribed our names, *Cape Cod* 11 of *November*, in the yeare of the raigne of our soveraigne Lord King James of *England*, *France* and *Ireland* 18, and of *Scotland* 54. *Anno Domini*, 1620.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE,
IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object

the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature; a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose, obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have

conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And, for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

New Hampshire.—JOSIAH BARTLETT, WILLIAM WHIPPLE, MATTHEW THORNTON.

Massachusetts Bay.—SAMUEL ADAMS, JOHN ADAMS, ROBERT TREAT PAINE, ELBRIDGE GERRY.

Rhode Island.—STEPHEN HOPKINS, WILLIAM ELLERY.

Connecticut.—ROGER SHERMAN, SAMUEL HUNTINGTON, WILLIAM WILLIAMS, OLIVER WOLCOTT.

New York.—WILLIAM FLOYD, PHILIP LIVINGSTON, FRANCIS LEWIS, LEWIS MORRIS.

New Jersey.—RICHARD STOCKTON, JOHN WITHERSPOON, FRANCIS HOPKINSON, JOHN HART, ABRAHAM CLARK.

Pennsylvania.—ROBERT MORRIS, BENJAMIN RUSH, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, JOHN MORTON, GEORGE CLYMER, JAMES SMITH, GEORGE TAYLOR, JAMES WILSON, GEORGE ROSS.

Delaware.—CÆSAR RODNEY, GEORGE READ, THOMAS MCKEAN.

Maryland.—SAMUEL CHASE, WILLIAM PACA, THOMAS STONE, CHARLES CARROLL of Carrollton.

Virginia.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North Carolina.—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

South Carolina.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Thomas Lynch, Arthur Middleton.

Georgia.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.

THE ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION AND PERPETUAL UNION BETWEEN THE STATES OF NEW HAMPSHIRE, MASSACHUSETTS BAY, RHODE ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS, CONNECTICUT, NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, MARYLAND, VIRGINIA, NORTH CAROLINA, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND GEORGIA.

ARTICLE I.

The style of this Confederacy shall be, "The United States of America."

ARTICLE II.

Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, which is not by this Confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled.

ARTICLE III.

The said States hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other, for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

ARTICLE IV.

The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different States in this Union, the free inhabitants of each of these States, paupers, vagabonds, and fugitives from justice excepted, shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several States; and the people of each State shall have free ingress and egress to and from any other State, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce subject to the same duties, impositions, and restrictions as the inhabitants thereof respectively; provided that such restrictions shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any State

to any other State of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided also, that no imposition, duties, or restriction shall be laid by any State on the property of the United States or either of them. If any person guilty of, or charged with, treason, felony, or other high misdemeanor in any State shall flee from justice and be found in any of the United States, he shall, upon demand of the governor or executive power of the State from which he fled, be delivered up and removed to the State having jurisdiction of his offence. Full faith and credit shall be given in each of these States to the records, acts, and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other State.

ARTICLE V.

For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed in such manner as the Legislature of each State shall direct, to meet in Congress on the first Monday in November, in every year, with a power reserved to each State to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No State shall be represented in Congress by less than two, nor by more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States for which he, or another for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. Each State shall maintain its own delegates in any meeting of the States and while they act as members of the Committee of the States. In determining questions in the United States in Congress assembled, each State shall have one vote. Freedom of speech and debate in Congress shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Congress; and the members of Congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments during the time of their going to and from, and attendance on, Congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

ARTICLE VI.

No State, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from,

or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance, or treaty with any king, prince, or state; nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state; nor shall the United States in Congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

No two or more States shall enter into any treaty, confederation, or alliance whatever between them, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, specifying accurately the purposes for which the same is to be entered into, and how long it shall continue.

No State shall lay any imposts or duties which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties entered into by the United States in Congress assembled with any king, prince, or state, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by Congress to the courts of France and Spain.

No vessel of war shall be kept up in time of peace by any State, except such number only as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in Congress assembled for the defence of such State or its trade, nor shall any body of forces be kept up by any State in time of peace, except such number only as, in the judgment of the United States in Congress assembled shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such State; but every State shall always keep up a well-regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred, and shall provide and constantly have ready for use in public stores a due number of field-pieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition, and camp equipage.

No State shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be actually invaded by enemies, or shall have received certain advice of a resolution being formed by some nation of Indians to invade such State, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of a delay till the United States in Congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any State grant commissions to any ships or vessels of war, nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in Congress assembled, and then only against the kingdom or state, and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be infested by pirates,

in which case vessels of war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in Congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

ARTICLE VII.

When land forces are raised by any State for the common defence, all officers of or under the rank of Colonel shall be appointed by the Legislature of each State respectively by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such State shall direct, and all vacancies shall be filled up by the State which first made the appointment.

ARTICLE VIII.

All charges of war, and all other expenses that shall be incurred for the common defence, or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in Congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several States in proportion to the value of all land within each State, granted to, or surveyed for, any person, as such land and the buildings and improvements thereon shall be estimated, according to such mode as the United States in Congress assembled shall, from time to time, direct and appoint. The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the Legislatures of the several States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled.

ARTICLE IX.

The United States in Congress assembled shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth Article ; of sending and receiving ambassadors ; entering into treaties and alliances, provided that no treaty of commerce shall be made, whereby the legislative power of the respective States shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatever; of establishing rules for deciding, in all cases, what captures on land or water shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated ; of granting letters of marque

and reprisal in times of peace; appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas; and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of captures; provided that no member of Congress shall be appointed a judge of any of the said courts.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also be the last resort on appeal in all disputes and differences now subsisting, or that hereafter may arise between two or more States concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following: Whenever the legislative or executive authority, or lawful agent of any State in controversy with another, shall present a petition to Congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given by order of Congress to the legislative or executive authority of the other State in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance of the parties by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint, by joint consent, commissioners or judges to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question; but if they cannot agree, Congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen; and from that number not less than seven nor more than nine names, as Congress shall direct, shall, in the presence of Congress, be drawn out by lot; and the persons whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners or judges, to hear and finally determine the controversy, so always as a major part of the judges who shall hear the cause shall agree in the determination; and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons which Congress shall judge sufficient, or being present, shall refuse to strike, the Congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each State, and the secretary of Congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing; and the judgment and sentence of the court, to be appointed in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence or judgment, which shall in like manner be final and decisive; the judgment or sentence and

other proceedings being in either case transmitted to Congress, and lodged among the acts of Congress for the security of the parties concerned; provided, that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath, to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the State where the cause shall be tried, "well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favor, affection, or hope of reward." Provided, also, that no State shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

All controversies concerning the private right of soil claimed under different grants of two or more States, whose jurisdictions, as they may respect such lands, and the States which passed such grants are adjusted, the said grants or either of them being at the same time claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement of jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the Congress of the United States, be finally determined, as near as may be, in the same manner as is before prescribed for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different States.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective States; fixing the standard of weights and measures throughout the United States; regulating the trade and managing all affairs with the Indians, not members of any of the States; provided that the legislative right of any State, within its own limits, be not infringed or violated; establishing and regulating post-offices from one State to another, throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office; appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States, excepting regimental officers; appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever in the service of the United States; making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

The United States in Congress assembled shall have authority to appoint a committee, to sit in the recess of Congress, to be denominated "a Committee of the States," and to consist of one delegate from each State, and to appoint such other committees and

civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States under their direction; to appoint one of their number to preside; provided that no person be allowed to serve in the office of president more than one year in any term of three years; to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses; to borrow money or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half year to the respective States an account of the sums of money so borrowed or emitted; to build and equip a navy; to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each State for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in each State, which requisition shall be binding; and thereupon the Legislature of each State shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, and clothe, arm, and equip them in a soldier-like manner, at the expense of the United States; and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled; but if the United States in Congress assembled shall, on consideration of circumstances, judge proper that any State should not raise men, or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other State should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed, and equipped in the same manner as the quota of such State, unless the Legislature of such State shall judge that such extra number cannot be safely spared out of the same, in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm, and equip as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared, and the officers and men so clothed, armed, and equipped shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled.

The United States in Congress assembled shall never engage in a war, nor grant letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into any treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States, or any of them, nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels of war to be built or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be

raised, nor appoint a commander-in-chief of the army or navy, unless nine States assent to the same, nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States in Congress assembled.

The Congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months, and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations as in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each State, on any question, shall be entered on the journal when it is desired by any delegate; and the delegates of a State, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the Legislatures of the several States.

ARTICLE X.

The Committee of the States, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of Congress, such of the powers of Congress as the United States in Congress assembled, by the consent of nine States, shall, from time to time, think expedient to vest them with; provided that no power be delegated to the said Committee, for the exercise of which, by the Articles of Confederation, the voice of nine States in the Congress of the United States assembled is requisite.

ARTICLE XI.

Canada, acceding to this Confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into, and entitled to all the advantages of this Union; but no other colony shall be admitted into the same, unless such admission be agreed to by nine States.

ARTICLE XII.

All bills of credit emitted, moneys borrowed, and debts contracted by or under the authority of Congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present Confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for

payment and satisfaction whereof the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

ARTICLE XIII.

Every State shall abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled on all questions which by this Confederation are submitted to them. And the Articles of this Confederation shall be inviolably observed by every State, and the Union shall be perpetual; nor shall any alteration at any time hereafter be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a Congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the Legislatures of every State.

And whereas it hath pleased the Great Governor of the world to incline the hearts of the Legislatures we respectively represent in Congress to approve of, and to authorize us to ratify, the said Articles of Confederation and perpetual Union, know ye, that we, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do, by these presents, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify and confirm each and every of the said Articles of Confederation and perpetual Union, and all and singular the matters and things therein contained. And we do further solemnly plight and engage the faith of our respective constituents, that they shall abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled on all questions which by the said Confederation are submitted to them; and that the Articles thereof shall be inviolably observed by the States we respectively represent, and that the Union shall be perpetual.

In witness whereof we have hereunto set our hands in Congress. Done at Philadelphia in the State of Pennsylvania the ninth day of July in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and in the third year of the independence of America.

On the part & behalf of the State of New Hampshire.

Josiah Bartlett, John Wentworth, Junr.
August 8, 1778.

On the part and behalf of the State of Massachusetts Bay.

JOHN HANCOCK,
SAMUEL ADAMS,
ELBRIDGE GERRY,
FRANCIS DANA,
JAMES LOVELL,
SAMUEL HOLTEN.

On the part and behalf of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

WILLIAM ELLERY,
HENRY MARCHANT,
JOHN COLLINS.

On the part and behalf of the State of Connecticut.

ROGER SHERMAN,
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,
OLIVER WOLCOTT,
TITUS HOSMER,
ANDREW ADAMS.

On the part and behalf of the State of New York.

JAS. DUANE,
FRA. LEWIS,
WM. DUER,
GOUV. MORRIS.

On the part and in behalf of the State of New Jersey, Novr. 26, 1778.

JNO. WITHERSPOON,
NATHL. SCUDDER.

On the part and behalf of the State of Pennsylvania.

ROBT. MORRIS,
DANIEL ROBERDEAU,
JONA. BAYARD SMITH,
WILLIAM CLINGAN,
JOSEPH REED, 22d July, 1778.

On the part & behalf of the State of Delaware.

THO. M'KEAN, Feby. 12, 1779,
JOHN DICKINSON, May 5th, 1779,
NICHOLAS VAN DYKE.

On the part and behalf of the State of Maryland.

JOHN HANSON,
March 1, 1781.
DANIEL CARROLL,
Mar. 1, 1781.

On the part and behalf of the State of Virginia.

Richard Henry Lee, Jno. Harvie,
John Banister, Francis Lightfoot Lee.
Thomas Adams,

On the part and behalf of the State of No. Carolina.

John Penn, July 21st, 1778, Jno. Williams.
Corns. Harnett,

On the part & behalf of the State of South Carolina.

Henry Laurens, Richd. Hutson,
William Henry Drayton, Thos. Hayward, Junr.
Jno. Mathews,

On the part & behalf of the State of Georgia.

Jno. Walton, 24th July, 1778, Edwd. Langworthy.
Edwd. Telfair,

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Section I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section II. 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such a manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose 3; Massachusetts, 8; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, 1; Connecticut, 5; New York, 6; New Jersey, 4; Pennsylvania, 8; Delaware, 1; Maryland, 6; Virginia, 10; North Carolina, 5; South Carolina, 5, and Georgia, 3.[1]

[1] See Article XIV., Amendments.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III. 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore* in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV. 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make

or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday of December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V. 1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI. 1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII. 1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the Pres-

ident of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that House it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment), shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII. The Congress shall have power:

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive rights to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX. 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7. No money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION X. 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any impost or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SECTION I. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. [The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.][1]

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

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[1] This clause is superseded by Article XII., Amendments.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION II. 1. The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and, in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION I. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II. 1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III. 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION I. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II. 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III. 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State, nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: *Provided*, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses of the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thou-

sand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
John Langdon,
Nicholas Gilman.

MASSACHUSETTS.
Nathaniel Gorham,
Rufus King.

CONNECTICUT.
William Samuel Johnson,
Roger Sherman.

NEW YORK.
Alexander Hamilton.

NEW JERSEY.
William Livingston,
David Brearley,
William Paterson,
Jonathan Dayton.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Benjamin Franklin,
Thomas Mifflin,
Robert Morris,
George Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimons,
Jared Ingersoll,
James Wilson,
Gouverneur Morris.

DELAWARE.
George Reed,
Gunning Bedford,
John Dickinson,
Richard Bassett,
Jacob Broom.

MARYLAND.
James McHenry,
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer,
Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.
John Blair,
James Madison.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Blount,
Richard Dobbs Spaight,
Hugh Williamson.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
John Rutledge,
Charles C. Pinckney,
Charles Pinckney,
Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA.
William Few,
Abraham Baldwin.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in

their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid and comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.

1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce the provisions of this article by appropriate legislation.

RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The Constitution was ratified by the thirteen original States in the following order:

Delaware, December 7, 1787; Pennsylvania, December 12, 1787; New Jersey, December 18, 1787; Georgia, January 2, 1788; Connecticut, January 9, 1788; Massachusetts, February 6, 1788; Maryland, April 28, 1788; South Carolina, May 23, 1788; New Hampshire, June 21, 1788; Virginia, June 25, 1788; New York, July 26, 1788; North Carolina, November 21, 1789; Rhode Island, May 29, 1790.

RATIFICATION OF THE AMENDMENTS.

I. to X. inclusive were declared in force December 15, 1791; XI. was declared in force January 8, 1798; XII. was declared in force September 25, 1804; XIII. was proclaimed December 18, 1865; XIV. was proclaimed July 28, 1868; XV. was proclaimed March 30, 1870.

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

WHEREAS, On the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing among other things the following, to wit:

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States, by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days from the day first above mentioned, order and designate as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof, respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, St. Mary's, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkeley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Anne, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth); and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are and henceforward shall be free, and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known, that such persons, of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed. Done at the city of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States of America the eighty-seventh.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD,

Secretary of State.

GLOSSARY OF TERMS.

A.

Absolute. Relating to a monarchy. An absolute monarchy is one in which the ruler has absolute control of the government.

Act. A law of the United States or of a State.

Adjournment. A recess or vacation.

Administration. The term of office which a President serves. The name given to a President and the Executive Department, as the administration of President McKinley.

Admiralty. The court which has jurisdiction of maritime questions and offences. That which pertains to seamen or to naval affairs.

Affirmation. A declaration for the proper performance of a public duty.

Alien. A person residing in a country, but not a native of it; a foreigner.

"All other persons." A phrase used in the Constitution instead of the word "slaves."

Alliance. A union between States or countries for some general purpose, usually commerce. In an alliance the union is not strong, and may be dissolved at any time.

Ambassador. A representative of the highest class from one country to another. He looks after the interests of the country which he represents, and resides at the capital of the country to which he is sent.

Amendment. Something added to the Constitution, changing some part of it.

Appellate. Pertaining to appeals. The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. When a case is heard in a lower court and is then taken to a higher court, the decision of the latter is given from appellate jurisdiction.

Apportion. To divide or to share anything. To apportion Representatives is to divide them among the States in the proper proportion.

Appropriation. A sum of money which is authorized by law to be taken out of the Treasury.

Aristocracy. A form of government in which the authority is given to a small body of men, who have much power. It is similar to an absolute monarchy, in that the people have little power.

Arsenal. A government building where arms and ammunition are manufactured and kept.

Articles of Confederation. A body of laws passed by the Second Continental Congress in 1777 and ratified by the States in 1781. They governed the country from 1781 to 1789.

Attainder. Relating to bill of attainder. A bill passed by some law-making body to take the life of some person without giving him a trial. Attainder of treason means the conviction of treason.

B.

Bail. A security; a fixed sum of money, or its value in real estate, which is required for the release of a person charged with some offence. When the case is settled the bail is discharged.

Ballot. A slip of paper used in voting, on which the voter designates his choice of candidates, or his choice on any matter before a body.

Bankrupt. A person who owes more than he can pay.

Bill. A proposed law. A law in its first stage. A future law which has not gone through the process prescribed by the Constitution.

Bill of Rights. The first ten amendments to the Constitution, adopted in 1791. All of these give rights to the people which were not mentioned in the Constitution when it was made.

Bills of Credit. The paper money of a country.

Bounty. A sum of money paid by the government to a person for any special work.

Bribery. Something of value given to a person to influence him to do wrong.

C.

Cabinet. The advisers of the President. The Executive Department. The men who aid the President in the execution of the laws.

Capital. Relating to the head. The capital of the country is the head or chief city. A capital offence is one that was formerly punished by cutting off the head, but at the present time is punished by death.

Capitation Tax. So much a head, or a certain sum of money for each person. A poll-tax is a capitation tax.

Census. The counting of the people. Its uses in our country are:

1. To apportion Representatives.
2. To lay direct taxes.
3. As a matter of history.

Charter. Relating to a colonial form of government. In this form the people had the most rights. These rights were mentioned in a written document called a charter.

Chief Justice. The head of the Supreme Court. The judge who directs its deliberations.

Circuit. A certain district for judicial purposes. Courts established by Congress. There are nine Circuit Courts in the United States, corresponding to the number of judges in the Supreme Court. Each judge of the Supreme Court is a member of some Circuit Court. Each Circuit Court has two judges,—viz., a Supreme Court judge and a Circuit Court judge. When the former cannot attend his Circuit Court the other judge acts alone. This prevents any delay in business. Circuit Courts decide civil cases and deal with United States matters.

Citizen. An inhabitant who has special rights. Citizens may be natural born or naturalized. Men, women, and children are citizens.

Civil. Not military; not criminal. A civil officer is one who aids in conducting the business of the government, in this respect being the opposite of a military officer. A civil case is one in which no crime has been committed, but simply a disagreement exists between the parties.

Coin. The money of a country which is made from metal, such as gold, silver, and copper.

Colony. A small body of people occupying a tract of land belonging to a nation, but situated some distance from it, yet still being under its control.

Commerce. Trade; intercourse. The interchange of commodities.

Commission. A written statement signed by the proper officers and given to a person occupying a public position. It shows that such person has the right to perform the duties of the office. A body of men selected to perform a specified work, such as the Electoral Commission, the Spanish-American War Peace Commission, etc.

Common Law. Unwritten law. A law which was never made by a Legislature. A law derived from usage or custom. That a President shall have but two terms is a common law.

Compensation. A sum of money; pay; salary. A sum of money paid to a government officer for the work which he performs.

Compromise. An agreement reached by the parties to a dispute in which each gives up a portion of its claims.

Compulsory. That which must be done. The taking of the census is compulsory on Congress.

Concurrence. Consent; agreement. When a bill passes one house it must have the concurrence of the other before it can become a law.

Confederation. A strong union between States or countries to promote a common interest, especially against an enemy in war.

Congress. The two houses,—viz., Senate and House of Representatives. The name given to the Legislative Department of the United States.

Constitution. The main or fundamental laws of the country. They specify how the government is to be carried on. The laws upon which all future laws are based.

Constitutional. Agreeing with the Constitution. A law is said to be constitutional when it accords with the fundamental law.

Constitutionally. Agreeably to, or in accordance with, the United States Constitution.

Construe. Explain; interpret; taken to mean.

Consul. A person who represents his country at an important foreign commercial town. His business is to protect travellers and seamen who come from his own country and to watch for opportunities for the extension of commerce.

Contract. A written and signed agreement between parties to do or not to do some specified work. The signing of the contract binds the parties thereto to faithfully perform its provisions.

Controversies. Disputes; disagreements. Various cases which come before the courts.

Convene. To assemble; to bring together.

Convention. A meeting of delegates chosen by the people to frame a constitution, to nominate candidates, or to adopt a set of political principles.

Copyright. A government protection to authors.

Counterfeiting. The unlawful coinage or making of the money or securities of the United States or of any foreign country.

Court. The place where the laws are explained, where disputes are settled, and where violators of the laws are punished.

Crime. An action of one or more persons which injures the character or body of another.

D.

Democratic. A form of government in which the people decide all questions for themselves.

Department. One of the many branches into which the work of the government has been divided.

Direct Taxes. Taxes laid directly upon the people. Tax on real estate and personal property.

Disability. Disqualification to hold office. Ineligible.

Disqualification. That which renders one ineligible to office.

District Courts. Courts established by Congress. There are seventy-eight District Courts, distributed among the different States. These courts deal with criminal cases and violations of the national laws.

District of Columbia. The place in which the Capitol is located.

Dock-yard. A government place where war-ships are repaired and naval stores are kept.

Duty. A sum of money for the support of a government, generally levied on imports. Ad valorem, specific, and compound duties are the various kinds in use by our government.

E.

Elector. A voter. A common elector is one who votes on all questions. A Presidential elector is one who is chosen by the common electors and who votes for President and Vice-President.

Electoral College. All the Presidential electors. The men who elect the President and the Vice-President.

Eligible. Having the proper qualifications to hold office.

Emolument. A present, gift, or compensation.

Enumeration. The act of counting. The census, which is required to be taken every ten years.

Equity. The application of justice to those cases in dispute in which there is no law upon the subject.

Excises. A sum of money for the support of a government, generally levied on goods made in the country.

Executive. That branch of the government which sees that the laws made by Congress are enforced or carried out. The President, cabinet officers, and minor officers under them belong to the executive branch.

Exports. Goods carried out of a country.

Ex Post Facto. A law which increases the punishment of a crime after it has been committed. It also makes an act a crime which was not a crime when it was committed. Such laws are prohibited.

Extradition. The exchange of fugitives from justice between two countries.

Extraordinary. Anything unusual. That which is not ordinary or common. An extraordinary session of Congress is one that is not regularly provided for; it is convened by the President.

F.

Felony. Any crime of a serious nature.

Fine. A sum of money imposed by a court for the violation of some law.

G.

Government. The collection of laws which control the actions of the inhabitants of a country. That part of society selected to see that the laws are obeyed and that the business of the nation is properly transacted.

H.

Habeas Corpus. A writ issued by a judge to bring a prisoner before him. This is to find out whether the prisoner has committed such a serious crime that he should be deprived of his liberty. This can be granted only before a regular trial.

House of Representatives. One of the two houses of Congress. The larger branch of the Legislative Department. The branch directly representing the people. A branch of a State Legislature.

I.

Imminent. Impending, near, close at hand, immediate. An imminent act is one which is about to occur.

Immunity. A special right. A right which is not possessed by all the people, but only a certain part thereof.

Impeachment. The passing of a bill by the House of Representatives charging an officer of the government with improper conduct while in office.

Imports. Goods brought into a country.

Imposts. A sum of money levied on imports for the support of the government.

Indictment. A paper drawn up by a district attorney, charging a person with crime.

Ineligible. Not qualified. Not possessing the proper qualifications to hold office.

Inhabitant. One who lives in a city, State, or nation. If an inhabitant is born or naturalized here, he has certain rights, and is a citizen; if not, he is simply a resident, without these rights.

Insurrection. A rising of the people against certain acts of the government. In an insurrection the uprising is not wide-spread and there is no harmonious action.

Invasion. The entering of an armed force into the territory of another nation without its consent.

Involuntary Servitude. The act of serving against one's will. This relates to prisoners, who, as punishment for crime, are compelled to serve terms in prison against their wills. It also related to slavery. Slaves were compelled against their wills to serve their owners.

J.

Judgment. The sentence or decision of, or punishment by, a court. Judgment in impeachment cases can only extend to removal from office, but the person may receive another judgment in a regular court.

Judicial Proceedings. A record of all trials of the courts. A book containing accounts of all the business in the courts.

Journal. A book kept by each house, in which the transactions are written.

Jurisdiction. The territory over which the power of a country extends.

Jury. A number of men used in court proceedings to judge as to the guilt or innocence of an accused person. The grand jury, generally consisting of twenty-three men, decides whether the evidence against an accused person is sufficient to warrant a trial in court. A common or petit jury, consisting of twelve men, judges of the guilt or innocence of the accused.

L.

Law. A bill which has followed the course prescribed by the Constitution. A written document describing what may and may not be done.

Legislative. Relating to that branch of government which makes the laws.

Limited. Relating to a monarchy in which the power of the ruler is limited by a constitution and in which the people have some rights.

M.

Magazine. A place where ammunition is stored.

Majority. Relates generally to votes, voting, or number. More than half, as $33 \div 2 = 17$, majority.

Maritime. Pertaining to the sea. Cases which arise under this heading are in the jurisdiction of the United States courts.

Marque and Reprisal. Authority from a government to private citizens to capture the goods or ships of citizens of a country with whom it is at war. Letters of marque and reprisal are the papers which give such citizens the authority to go on the high seas and capture vessels of the enemy.

Militia. The citizen soldiers of the different States. A reserve army called upon in times of need. Men who exercise in the use of arms at convenient times, but who still pursue their usual occupations.

Minister. A representative of one country to another. He is next in importance to an ambassador, and is sent to countries of secondary importance. He looks after the interests of his country, and resides at the capital of the country to which he is sent.

Misdemeanor. A crime of lower degree than felony. Felony may be punishable by death, but not so with a misdemeanor.

Monarchy. A country or nation ruled by a monarch. The people have no voice in the selection of the monarch, that office being hereditary.

N.

Nation. A country generally composed of many parts under the control of one ruler.

Natural Born. Born within a country or in any place subject to its jurisdiction.

Naturalization. The method by which a foreigner becomes a citizen.

Nobility. Titles by which persons are divided into different classes. These titles are generally found in monarchies. In the United States they are prohibited.

O.

Oath. A declaration for the proper performance of a public duty, made with the hand upon the Bible.

Objections. Reasons which the President writes on each bill that he does not sign.

Ordain. To order.

Original Jurisdiction. Pertaining to the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. The beginning and ending of a case in the Supreme Court. Such cases cannot be appealed.

Overt. Open; public; that which can be seen. An overt act is one which is openly performed in the presence of other people.

P.

Pardon. An absolute release from prison and from serving the punishment inflicted by some court as a punishment for crime.

Party. A collection of citizens who believe in the same political principles and who have banded themselves together to have their principles put into practice. One side to a controversy.

Patent. A government protection to inventors.

Pension. A fixed and regular sum of money paid by the government to a person who has been disabled in the service of his country. The pension lasts during the lifetime of the pensioner and goes to his wife and children at his death.

Piracy. Robbery committed on the high sea. This crime is almost extinct in civilized countries.

Plurality. The number of votes more than the next highest candidate. If there are one thousand votes cast and A gets two hundred, B three hundred and fifty, and C four hundred and fifty, C has a plurality of one hundred votes over the next highest candidate.

Preamble. To go before; an introductory clause. A clause or clauses which go before a constitution or charter, giving the reasons for its adoption.

Proprietary. Relating to a form of colonial government. In this form the Governor was a man who owned the land. He was called a "proprietor." Most of the rights of the people were granted by him.

Pro Tempore. For the time. A Senator who guides the actions of the Senate when the Vice-President is absent is called the president *pro tempore*. A Representative who presides over the House of Representatives when the Speaker is away is called the Speaker *pro tempore*.

Provincial or Royal. Relating to a form of colonial government. Of the three forms of colonial government this one had the least rights. The Governor and the members of the upper house of the Legislative Department were appointed by the king. The lower house was composed of members chosen by the people.

Public Acts. The acts or laws made by any law-making body.

Q.

Qualifications. The necessary qualities or properties which entitle one to hold office.

Quorum. The number of members necessary to do business. A fractional part of the membership of each house which must be present in order to transact business.

R.

Ratify. To give consent to; to agree to; to approve. To ratify a constitution is to give consent to it.

Rebellion. An uprising of many people against the authority of the government. In a rebellion the people act together and have leaders.

Reconsider. To consider again; to review. When a bill is vetoed by the President it must be reconsidered by Congress if it is desired to make it a law.

Representative. A member of the United States House of Representatives. One who directly represents the people in Congress. A member of the lower house of a State Legislature.

Reprieve. The right or power which the President has to stop the carrying out of the sentence of a United States court. The Governor has the same power over State courts. This does not free a person, but simply gives the prisoner the benefit of time in order to produce any new and important evidence that may be found after he has been sentenced. A paper containing an order to postpone the punishment to be inflicted upon a convicted party.

Republican Form of Government. One in which the people rule through representatives.

Requisition. A formal demand made by one State or government upon another for the surrender of a fugitive from justice.

Resignation. The giving up of an office before the term of service has expired. The paper which contains a statement or notice that a person desires to relinquish his authority over an office.

Revenue. The money derived from taxation and used for the support of the government.

Revolution. A successful rebellion.

S.

Search-Warrant. A paper issued by a court giving permission to some one to enter a house to search for goods or persons.

Secession. The act of going aside, going apart, or leaving. The leaving of a State from the Union when such State thinks it proper to do so. Many States left the Union during Lincoln's administration to take part in the Civil War.

Securities. A substitute for money. Government securities are papers showing that the holder is entitled to money from the government. Bonds are securities.

Senate. One of the two houses of Congress. The upper and smaller branch of the Legislative Department. That part of Congress in which the States are represented. The upper and smaller branch of a State Legislature.

Senator. A member of the United States Senate. One who represents a State in Congress. A member of a State Senate.

Slavery. The keeping of slaves. Involuntary servitude. Slaves are persons who are held as property by others. They can be bought and sold as their owners see fit.

Society. The association of fellow-beings.

Sole. Only; special; exclusive. "The House of Representatives shall have sole power of impeachment."

Speaker. The person who directs the actions of the House of Representatives. He must be a member of that body.

State Sovereignty. The idea once held in the Southern States that they could refuse to obey a law of the United States if they thought such law inimical to their particular interests. This was one of the causes of the Civil War.

"Such Persons." A phrase used to avoid the word slaves. Slavery is mentioned but twice in the Constitution,—viz., in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments.

Suffrage. The right to vote.

Supreme Court. The highest court in the land. It was established by the Constitution, and is now composed of nine judges. It is located at Washington, D. C.

T.

Tariff. A schedule of taxes. A law specifying the amount of import tax to be levied upon each article brought into the country.

Tax. A sum of money paid to a government for its support.

Territory. Land of the government used for various purposes. A part of the United States not organized as a State, but under the direct control of Congress.

Tonnage. The capacity of a ship in tons.

Treason. "Levying war against the United States or adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort."

Treaty. An agreement between nations settling questions which may be in dispute between them, such as war, boundaries, commerce, extradition, and postal affairs.

Tribunals. Courts of justice. Places where criminals are tried and disputes settled.

U.

Uniform. To be the same or alike. Taxes shall be uniform throughout the United States. Naturalization shall be uniform in the United States. Elections for President shall be uniform throughout the United States.

V.

Vacancy. An office which is unfilled, unoccupied, or empty, caused by death, resignation, removal, or sickness.

Validity. Valid; state of being good or legal.

Veto. "I forbid." The refusal of the President to sign a bill sent to him by Congress. A method of preventing a bill from becoming a law on its first passage.

Vice-President. The officer next to the President. The one who becomes President when there is a vacancy in that office. The Vice-President is the presiding officer of the Senate.

W.

Writ of Election. A paper issued to the sheriff by the Governor of a State authorizing the former to give notice to the voters or electors of a certain district that an election will be held on a particular day. These writs are issued when a vacancy occurs in the representation of any State in the United States House of Representatives.

Y.

Yeas and Nays. A method of voting. In voting by yeas and nays a person answers to his name, saying "Yea" if he favors the matter under discussion, or "Nay" if he opposes it.

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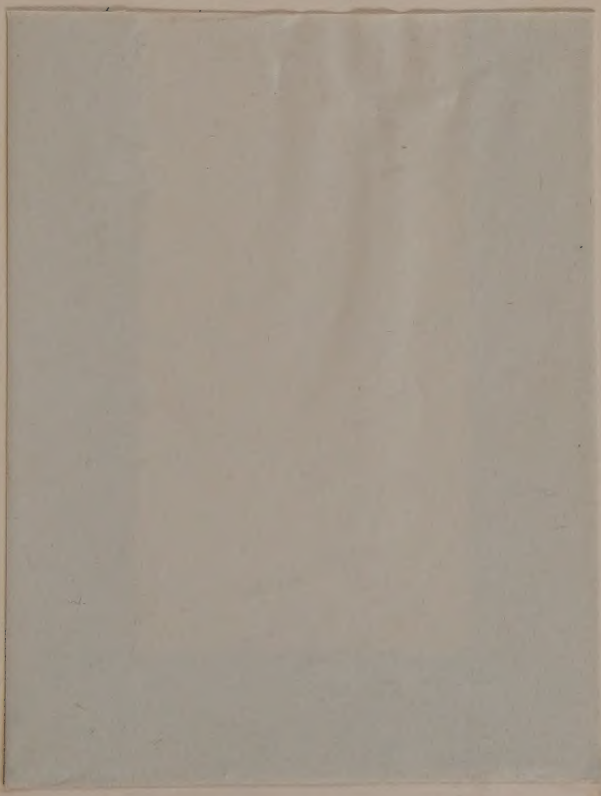
Tablas
SEMIRARA I.
CULION
CORON I.
LINAPACAN
Malampaya Sd.
P. Barton
St. Pauls B.
Ulugan B.
DUMARAN
Shirt Pt.
Puerto Princesa
PALAWAN
OR
PARAGUA
CAGAYANES IS.
Eran B.
SULU
SEA
Bulilluyan Pt.
MINDORO
Balabac
BALABAC
Balabac Strait
BALAMBANGAN
BANGUEY
Kudat B.
Marudu
Labuk Bay
BORNEO
Bruni
Darvel B.
PANGUTARANG GROUP
Sulu
SULU I.
TONKIL
SIMISA
SULU
Siassi
TAWI TAWI ISLANDS
Bonga
CELEBES SEA
Basilan Strait
BASILAN I.
Zamboanga
OLUTANGA
Sibuco B.
Illana B.
L. Lanao
L. Mindanao
Cottabato
Davao
Gulf
Leno B.
P. Lebuk
Tuna B.
L. Buluan
Craan
Sarangani B.
C. Sarangani
PALMAS I.
SARANGANI IS.
C. San Augustin
Calian Pt.
Tabon Pt.
Pujada B.
Manai
Bugauga
Catel
MT. HUMAYAA
Tumbog Pt.
Iligan
Agusan
Butuan
Liangon
Tubay
Pt. Cauit
Surigao
SIARGAO I.
DINAGAT
MALHON I.
Ilongos
CAMOTES IS.
Taclaban
Basia
Lanang
Pt. Pananamitan
Pt. Sungi
Biliran
Catbalogan
SAMAR
Calbalio
Pt. Binugayan
Palanog
CEBU
Cebu
BOHOL
Tagbilaran
Dumaguete
CAMIGUIN I.
SIQUIJOR
Binuanga
Tolon
Bais
Bacolod
Tiñat
GUIMARAS I.
CANLAON VOL. 8190
Hollo
PANAY
Concepcion
Pasi
Capiz
Pandan
MASBATE
Pulanduta Pt.
Pt. Pucio
Pt. Lipata
Pt. Talan
Cuyo
Sn Jose
Dao
Pt. Sojoton
Cauitan Pt.
Pt. Siaton
Murcielagos B.
Dapitan
Pt. Dauit
MT. MALIDING 8855
Sindangan B.
Misamis
Pt. Coronada
P. Sta. Maria
Macajalar B.
Iligan B.
Butuan
Agusan
MINDANAO
Surigao Strait
Panaon Str.
Bohol Sea
Basilan Strait
Sulu Sea
Mindanao Sea
Davao Gulf
Moro Gulf
Pt. Flecha
Pt. Kalaya
Pt. Pilar
Pt. Asia
Pt. Pulupandan
Pt. Binugayan
Pt. Cauit
Tubay
Liangon
Tumbog Pt.
Catel
Bugauga
Manai
Tabon Pt.
Pujada B.
C. San Augustin
Calian Pt.
Palmas I.
Sarangani Is.
Celebes Sea
Borneo
Sulu Archipelago
Philippine Sea
Longitude West from Greenwich
117°
122°
127°
12°
7°

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 150 200 250 300
MANILA and Vicinity.
MANILA BAY
Bulacan
Santa Cruz
Marilao
Meikauayan
Obando
Malabon
Pampanga Bay
Samal
S. Francisco de Monte
S. Juan del Monte
Mariquina
Maybunga
Pasig R.
MANILA
Santa Ana
Malate
Guadalupe
Pasay
Orion
Orion R.
Sanglei Pt.
S. Roque
Cavite
Bakor B.
Malibay
Paranaque
Bakor
Salinas
Lamao Pt.
Lasisi Pt.
CORREGIDOR I.
CABALLO I.
Amayat
Montinlupa
Bay Lake
FORMOSA (To Japan)
Nan-sha
Bashi Channel
IBAYAT
BATAN ISLANDS
Balintang Channel
BABUYAN
CALAYAN I.
BABUYAN ISLANDS
DALUPIRI
CAMIGUIN
FUGA I.
Pt. Dialao
C. Bojeador
Pasakwin
C. Engano
Iligan Pt.
Laoag
Culili Pt.
Gataran
Aparri
Sinai
Amulung
Lapug B.
Pt. Dile
MT. PACSAN
Enrile
Solvet
Luluno
P. Bicobian
Candon
Paranan
Divinisa Pt.
Darigayos
Palanan
Dinapiki Pt.
Tumango B.
Fernando
St. Thomas
Taragtig Pt.
C. Balinhasay
Lingayen G.
Sual
C. S. Ildefonso
Caiman Pt.
S. Cruz
Lingayen
Bongabong
Tarlac
Dicapinisan Pt.
S. Isidro
Iba
Banla Pt.
POLILLO
Subig
Bulacan
P. Subig
Malolos
MANILA
Bay L.
JOMALIG I.
Sogod B.
CORREGIDOR I.
Cavite
Bombon L.
TAAL VOL.
Daet
Ragay
S. Miguel B.
P. Sisiran
Lot Pt.
LUBANG I.
Balayan B.
Taal
PACIFIC
122°
127°
22°
17°



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